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expresses the relation in which the thing denoted by "sea" stands to the event denoted by "went out."

The noun, pronoun, or other noun-equivalent that follows the preposition is called its Object.

The use of a preposition, then, is to show the relation in which the person or thing denoted by its subject stands to some thing else.

✓ 11. Conjunctions.—A Conjunction is a joining word. It joins words and phrases to one another, or the sentence to another sentence.

(a) He made himself mean *and* of no reputation.

(b) May he live long *and* (may he) die happily.

In (a) the adjective "mean" is joined to the phrase "of no reputation" by the conjunction "and."

In (b) the sentence "may he live long" is joined to the same conjunction to the sentence "may he die happily."

✓ 12. Adverbs.—These, like adjectives, are qualifying words. An adjective, as we have shown, qualifies a noun; an adverb qualifies anything except a noun or pronoun.¹

That *very* fine ship has *already* sailed *half* through the Channel.

Here "very" is an adverb qualifying the adjective "fine"; "already" is an adverb qualifying the verb "has sailed"; and "half" is an adverb qualifying the preposition "through."

✓ 13. Interjections.—These are not words connected, as other words are, with other parts of a sentence; but mere sounds standing by themselves and thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind.

My son, *alas!* is not industrious.

Here "alas" is a sound thrown into the sentence to express regret.

✓ 14. The Parts of Speech defined.—Words are divided into different kinds or classes according to the purpose that they are used for. (The different kinds of words are called Parts of Speech.) They are eight in number, and have been described already:—

+ ✓ (1) A Noun is a word used for naming some person or thing.

¹ In other Grammars an Adverb is defined to be "a word used to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs." The inadequacy of this definition, which excludes Prepositions and Conjunctions from the qualifying power of adverbs, is further shown in § 253.

(2) A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun or noun-equivalent.

(3) An Adjective is a word used to qualify a noun.

(4) A Verb is a word used for saying something about some person or thing.

(5) A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or noun-equivalent to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun stands to something else.

(6) A Conjunction is a word used to join words or phrases together, or one clause to another clause.

(7) An Adverb is a word used to qualify any part of speech except a noun or pronoun.

(8) An Interjection is a word or sound thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind.

✓ 15. The Articles.—The words “a” and “the” are called Articles. “The” is called the *Definite* Article, because it particularises a noun. “A” or “an” is called the *Indefinite*, because it does not particularise a noun, but generalises it.

The articles are not a distinct part of speech, but merely adjectives. “A” or “an” is an abbreviated form of the adjective “one”; while “the” is an abbreviated form of “this,” “that,” “these,” “those.”

16. Finite Verb : Number and Person.—Any part of a verb that can be used as the *Predicate of a sentence* is called Finite.

The word “*finite*” means “limited.” A finite verb is so called, because it is limited to the same Person (*First, Second, or Third*) and to the same Number (*Singular or Plural*) as its Subject.

(a) I see him.

(b) They see him.

In both sentences the form of the verb “see” is the same. But in (a) the verb is in the First person, because its Subject “I” is in the First person, and in the Singular number, because its Subject is Singular. Similarly in (b) the verb is in the Third person, because its Subject “they” is in the Third person, and Plural, because its Subject is Plural.

17. Parts of a Verb not finite.—There are some parts of a verb, which are not finite, that is, are not limited to any particular Number or Person, because they cannot be used with a Subject or be made the Predicates of a sentence.

✗ Such parts are three in number :—(1) the Infinitive

mood, as "I wish *to retire*"; (2) a Participle, as "a *retired* officer"; (3) a Gerund, as "I think of *retiring*."

18. Double Parts of Speech.—Besides the eight parts of speech shown in § 14, there are three more which must be called double, or two parts of speech combined in one:—

✓(1) A Participle.—This is a verb and adjective combined.

A *retired* officer lives next door.

The word "retired" is a verb, because it is part of the verb "retire." It is also an adjective, because it qualifies the noun "officer." Hence a participle may be called a verbal adjective.

✓(2) A Gerund.—This is a verb and noun combined.

I think of *retiring* soon from service.

Here "retiring" is a verb, because it is part of the verb "retire." It is also a noun, because it is the object to the preposition "of." Hence a gerund has been called a verbal noun.

✓(3) A Relative Pronoun or Adverb.—A Relative pronoun such as *who*, *which*, etc., or a Relative adverb such as *where*, *when*, etc., is a pronoun or adverb combined with a conjunction

This is the house *where* we live.

Here "where" is an adverb, because it qualifies the verb "lives." It is also a conjunction, because it joins the two sentences. Hence, relative adverbs have been sometimes called conjunctive adverbs.¹ Similarly, relative pronouns have been called conjunctive pronouns.

19. Apposition of Noun with Noun.—A noun is said to be in apposition with another noun, or with a pronoun, when it refers to the same person or thing:—

Noun.—Philip, *king* of Macedon, was father to Alexander the Great.

Pronoun.—I, the *man* you were looking for, am here.

20. Apposition of Sentence with Noun.—A sentence can be placed in apposition with a noun to describe what is denoted by the noun; see § 316 (e)

The rumour *that you were coming* was generally believed.

21. Apposition of Noun with Sentence.—A noun can be in apposition with a sentence or with some implied

¹ "Conjunctive adverb" is the name given to these words by Mason in *English Grammar*, p. 105, § 262. I have found it more convenient, however, to retain the name "relative adverb."

noun, which (if it were expressed) would denote the action of the verb.

He killed his prisoners,—*a barbarous act*. (Here “act” is in apposition with the implied noun, the *killing* of prisoners.)

22. Forms of Subject.—The Subject to a sentence must be either a noun or a noun-equivalent. The principal forms in which a Subject can be expressed are as follows :—

- (a) Noun : *A ship* went out to sea.
- (b) Pronoun : *He* (some one previously named) was convicted.
- (c) Infinitive : *To err* (=error or proneness to error) is human.
- (d) Gerund : *Sleeping* is necessary to health.
- (e) Phrase : *How to do this* puzzles all of us.
- (f) Clause : *Whoever was caught* was sent to jail.

23. Transitive Verbs : Verb and Object.—A verb is Transitive, if the action or feeling denoted by the verb does not stop with itself, but is directed towards some person or thing. The word or words denoting such person or thing are called the Object to the verb.

That snake bit *the man*.

24. Forms of Object.—The various forms in which the Object can be expressed are the same as those in which the Subject can be expressed. See § 22.

- (a) Noun : That snake bit *the man*.
- (b) Pronoun : That snake bit *him*.
- (c) Infinitive : We desire *to succeed* (=success).
- (d) Gerund : He loves *riding*.
- (e) Phrase : We do not know *how to do this*.
- (f) Clause : We do not know *what he wants*.

25. Factitive Verbs : Complement.—Those Transitive verbs which require not only an Object (as all Transitive verbs do), but also some other word or words to make the predication complete, are called Factitive.

Such word or words are called the Complement.

He put the school (object) *into good order* (complement).

That grief drove him (object) *mad* (complement).

They made him (object) *laugh* (complement).

There is no sense in saying “he put the school,” “that grief drove him,” “they made him”; hence each verb must have a Complement.

26. Intransitive Verbs.—A verb is Intransitive, if the action or feeling denoted by the verb stops with itself, and is not directed towards anything else.

Fish *swim*. Rivers *flow*. All animals *die*.

27. **Intransitive Verbs with Complement.**—But Intransitive verbs, though they do not require an Object, may require a Complement, as some Transitive verbs also do.

Such verbs are called **Intransitive Verbs of Incomplete Predication**. They are also known as **Copulative**.

He became *a good scholar*.

Sleep is *necessary to health*.

28. **Absolute use of Verbs.**—A verb is said to be used absolutely, when it is not grammatically related to the rest of the sentence:—

— (a) **Participle** (further explained in § 384 and § 399):—

The sun having set, all went home. (*With Noun.*)

Supposing we are late, the door will be locked. (*Without Noun.*)

— (b) **Infinitive Mood** (further explained in § 235 and § 236):—

To think that he should have told a lie! (*Simple.*)

I am, — *to speak* plainly, — much displeased with you. (*Gerundial.*)

— (c) **Imperative Mood** (further explained in § 224):—

A few men, — *say* twelve, — may be expected shortly. ✓

29. **Introductory Adverb.**—When the subject to an *Intransitive* verb is placed *after* its verb, the verb is usually introduced by the adverb “*there*.” In this relation “*there*” does not signify “in that place,” but merely serves *to introduce the verb*. It has no signification whatever.

There are some men (subject) who never drink wine.

There came a maiden (subject) to my door.

30. **Kinds of Phrases.**—The following kinds of phrases should be distinguished from one another:—

(a) **Adverbial phrase**, or one which does the work of an adverb:—

I hope you will work better *in future*.

Bind him *hand and foot*, and take him away.

(b) **Prepositional phrase**, or one which does the work of a preposition. (Such phrases end in a simple preposition.)

In the event of our father's death, we shall be left poor.

He worked hard *for the sake of* a prize.

(c) **Conjunctive phrase**, or one which does the work

of a conjunction. (Such phrases end in a simple conjunction.)

I am tired *as well as* hungry.

He took medicine *in order that* he might recover.

—(d) Absolute Participial phrase; see § 384.

The sun having set, they all went home.

(e) Interjectional or exclamatory phrase; see § 294:—

Well to be sure! *For shame!* *Good heavens!*

X ∫ 31. Accent, Emphasis.—When we lay stress upon a single syllable, we call it Accent.

Sup-ply', sim'-ply: reb'-el (noun), re-bel' (verb).

X √ When we lay stress upon an *entire word*, we call it Emphasis.

Silver and gold have I none.

I appeal from Philip *drunk* to Philip *sober*.

CHAPTER II.—NOUNS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF NOUNS.

∫ 32. Noun defined.—A Noun is a word used for naming some person or thing (§ 14).

∫ 33. Nouns are of five different kinds:—

I. Concrete	{	Proper	1
		Common	2
		Collective	3
		Material	4
II. Abstract			5

Proper Nouns.

X √ 34. A Proper Noun denotes *one particular* person or thing as distinct from every other; as *James* (a person), *Gulistan* (a book), *Lucknow* (a city), *India* (a country).

Note 1.—The writing of a Proper noun should always be commenced with a capital letter.

Note 2.—A word or phrase is sometimes added to a proper noun to prevent ambiguity of reference. Thus we say, "*Alexander the Great*," or "*St. Paul*," or "*Boston in America*," to show which Alexander, or which Paul, or which Boston is meant: for many different persons or places might be called by these names.

Common Nouns.

✓ 35. A **Common Noun** denotes no one person or thing in particular, but is *common to any and every person or thing of the same kind*; as "man," "book," "country."

Thus, *man* does not point out any particular man, such as James, but can be used for any and every man. *Book* does not point out any particular book, such as *Gulistan*, but can be used for any and every book. *Country* does not point out any particular country, such as India, but can be used for any country in any part of the world.

✓ 36. A **Proper Noun** is said to be "*used as a Common Noun*," when it denotes (a) some rank or office, or (b) some class of persons or things.

✓ (a) Such words as *Cæsar*, *Caliph*, *Sultan*, *Khedive*, *Czar*, etc., are used as Common nouns, because they denote persons holding a certain rank or office: thus we can speak of "the twelve Cæsars," "the first four Caliphs," "the Sultan of Turkey," "the Czar of Russia."

✓ (b) A Proper noun becomes a Common noun, when it denotes a class of persons or things and is used in a descriptive sense. "He is *the Newton* of the age,"—that is, the greatest astronomer of the age.

Collective Nouns.

✓ 37. A **Collective Noun** denotes a *group* or *collection* of *similar individuals*, considered as one complete whole.

For instance, there may be *many sheep* in a field, but only *one flock*. Here "sheep" is a Common noun, because it may stand for any and every sheep; but "flock" is a Collective noun, because it stands for all the sheep at once, and not for any one sheep taken separately.

38. Every Collective Noun is also a kind of Common Noun.

Thus the term "flock" may stand for many different flocks (or groups of sheep); "class" for many classes (or groups of students).

✓ 39. **Nouns of Multitude**.—A distinction is made between a Collective Noun and a Noun of Multitude:—

✓ (a) A Collective noun denotes *one undivided whole*; and hence the verb following is singular (§ 16).

The jury *consists* of twelve persons.

✓ (b) A noun of Multitude denotes the *individuals* of the group; and hence the verb is plural, although the noun is singular (§ 16).

The jury (the men on the jury) *were* divided in their opinions.

Nouns of Material.

✓ 40. A Noun of Material denotes the *matter* or *substance* of which things are made.

Thus "sheep" is a Common noun; but "mutton" (or the flesh of sheep) is a Material noun.

✓ 41. The same word can be a Material noun or a Common noun according to the sense.

Fish live in water.

Fish is good for food.

In the first sentence the noun denotes individual fish or fishes, and is therefore a Common noun. In the second it denotes the matter of which the bodies of fish are made, and is therefore a Material noun.

Abstract Nouns.

✓ 42. An Abstract Noun denotes some *quality*, *state*, or *action*, apart from anything possessing the quality, etc.

Quality.—Cleverness, height, humility, roguery, colour.

✓ *State*.—Poverty, manhood, bondage, pleasure, youth.

Action.—Laughter, movement, flight, choice, revenge.

✓ The four kinds of nouns previously described all relate to objects of *sense*, that is, to things which can be seen, touched, heard, smelt, or tasted; and all such nouns are called **Concrete** nouns. But an Abstract noun relates to *qualities*, *states*, etc., which cannot be seen or touched, etc., and which are thought of *apart from* any object of sense.

For example—We know that a stone is *hard*. We also know that iron is *hard*. We also know that a brick is *hard*. We can therefore speak of *hardness* apart from stone, or iron, or brick, or any other object having the same quality. "Abstract" means "drawn off" (abstracted in thought) from the object. Hence *hardness* is an abstract noun; while *stone* or *brick* or *iron* is a concrete noun.

✓ 43. The same word may be an Abstract noun or a Common noun, according to the purpose for which it is used.

✓ When an Abstract noun is "*used as a Common or Concrete noun*," it may denote (a) the *person* possessing the quality, or (b) the *thing* to which the action, state, or quality belongs:—

(a) *Examples of Persons*

Justice	1. The quality of being just	Abstract
	2. A judge, or one who administers justice	Concrete
Beauty	1. The quality or state of being beautiful	Abstract
	2. A person possessing beauty	Concrete

<i>Authority</i>	1.	The power or right to command.	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	A person possessing authority	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Nobility</i>	1.	The quality of being noble.	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	Those who are of the class of nobles	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Witness</i>	1.	Evidence or testimony	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	One who gives the evidence	<i>Concrete</i>

(b) *Examples of Things*

<i>Judgment</i>	1.	The act or quality of judging	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	The verdict given by the judge	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Sight</i>	1.	The art or faculty of seeing	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	The thing seen: "a fine sight"	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Speech</i>	1.	The faculty of speaking	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	The speech delivered: the word spoken	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Wonder</i>	1.	The feeling of wonder or surprise	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	The wonderful event or object	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Kindness</i>	1.	The quality of being kind	<i>Abstract</i>
	2.	The kind thing done	<i>Concrete</i>

✓ 44. The Gerunds and the Simple Infinitives of verbs (§ 235) are in fact, though not in form, kinds of Abstract nouns. The following sentences all mean the same thing:—

Service is better than idleness. (*Abstract Noun.*)

Serving is better than idleness. (*Gerund.*)

To serve is better than idleness. (*Infinitive Mood.*)

✓ 45. An Abstract noun is used as a Proper noun, when it is personified,—that is, when it is spoken of as an individual person. It must then be commenced with a capital letter, as Proper nouns are.

✓ He is the favoured child of *Fortune*.
Let not *Ambition* mock their useful toil.

✓ 46. There are two ways in which a Proper, Material, or Abstract noun can be used as (or changed into) a Common noun:—(a) by putting an article ("a" or "the") before it; (b) by putting it into the plural number.

Proper Noun.

Common Nouns.

Daniel was a learned Jew.

{ *A Daniel* come to judgment.
{ There are more *Daniels* than one.

Material Noun.

Mango is my favourite fruit.

{ Give me *the mango* in your hand.
{ Give me one of your *mangoes*.

Abstract Noun.

Justice is a noble quality.

{ He is *a justice* of the peace.
{ There are four *justices* present.

Point out the kind or use of each of the nouns occurring below :—

Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, was conqueror of Persia. A man ignorant of the arts of reading, writing, and ciphering is, in point of knowledge, more like a child than a man. The proper study of mankind is man. Cows are as fond of grass as men are of milk, or bears of honey. Health is one of the greatest blessings that a man or woman can hope to enjoy in this bodily existence. The Czar of Russia, although he is lord of the eastern half of Europe and the northern half of Asia, besides being master of a huge army and a large fleet, cannot live in peace and safety with his own subjects, and cannot leave his own palace without fear. Arjun was the bravest of the Pándavas. Kálidás was the Homer of India; but his fame is not so widely known throughout the world as that of Homer is. Almost every Hindu belongs to some caste; but the bondage of rules founded on caste is in a state of decline. A shower of rain does not give so much trouble to a traveller as a fall of snow. The eleven of our school defecated an eleven selected from among the best cricketers of the town. Most kinds of food are not conducive to health, unless they are mixed with a certain amount of salt. The love of money is the root of all evil; but by a proper use of money men can do much good. He has done me so many kindnesses, that I shall always remember his name with gratitude. Cleon is a justice by rank and office, but he is not a genius in the science of law. Speech is one of the highest faculties with which man is endowed; but speech without goodness and purity may prove an evil rather than a blessing to its possessor. Daniel was a Jewish prophet. He is a Daniel in foresight. By the waters of Babylon we sat down and wept. There is no slate in the rocks of these hills. Give him the slate. Witchcraft is the art practised by a witch or wizard. Fair Science frowned not on his humble birth, but Melancholy marked him for her own.

§ 2.—SUBSTITUTES FOR A NOUN.

✕ 47. The following kinds of words or combinations of words can be used as substitutes for a Noun; see §§ 22, 24 :—

✓(a) A Pronoun :—

Your horse is white; mine is a black *one* (= horse).

✓(b) An Adjective used as a Noun or with some noun understood :—

The blind (men) receive their sight.

The just (= justice) is higher than *the expedient* (= expediency).

✓(c) An Infinitive verb :—

He desires *to succeed* (= success).

✓(d) A Gerund :—

He was fond of *sleeping* (= sleep).

✓(e) A Phrase :—

No one knew *how to do this* (=the method of doing this).

✓(f) A Noun-clause ; that is, a clause which does the work of a noun ; (for the definition of “clause” see § 5).

Who steals my purse (=the stealer of my purse) steals trash.

§ 3.—GENDER.

✓48. What in nature is called the difference of sex is in grammar called the difference of Gender. The following are therefore the different kinds of genders :—

- ✓(1) Nouns denoting *male* animals . . . Masculine.
- (2) Nouns denoting *female* animals . . . Feminine.
- (3) Nouns denoting animals of *either* sex . Common.
- (4) Nouns denoting things of *neither* sex, } Neuter.
that is, things without life

✓49. All Material and Abstract nouns must be of the Neuter Gender, since they denote things without life,—things of *neither* sex. All Collective nouns must be Neuter, since they denote groups, and groups as such have no life.

✓Nouns can therefore be classified according to gender in the following way :—

<i>Gender.</i>	<i>Nouns.</i>
Masculine or Feminine	} Proper and Common nouns.
Common (or Either Gender)	
	} Common nouns.
Neuter (or Neither Gender)	} Proper nouns. Common „ Collective „ Material „ Abstract „

✓50. There are three different ways by which a Masculine noun is distinguished from a Feminine :—

- ✓I. By a change of word ; as *bull*, *cow*.
- II. By adding a word ; as *he-goat*, *she-goat*.
- III. By adding *ess* to the Masculine ; as *priest*, *priestess*.

I. *By a change of word :*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid (or spinster)	Horse (or stallion)	mare
Boar	sow	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Brother	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull (or ox)	cow	Milter (fish)	spawner
Bullock (or steer)	heifer	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Papa	mamma
Colt	filly	Ram (or wether)	ewe
Dog	bitch (or slut)	Sir	madam (or dame)
Drake	duck	Sire	dam
Drone	bee	(father of colt)	(mother of colt)
Earl	countess	Sloven	slut
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar (or monk)	nun	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Swain	nymph
Gentleman	lady	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizard	witch

II. *By adding a word :*(a) *By adding a prefix.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Billy-goat	nanny-goat
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit
Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
He-goat	she-goat
Jack-ass	she-ass
Man-servant	maid-servant

(b) *By a change of suffix.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Grand-father	grand-mother
Great-uncle	great-aunt
Land-lord	land-lady
Pea-cock	pea-hen
Servant-man	servant-maid
Washer-man	washer-woman

III. *By adding ess to the Masculine :*

(a) *By adding ess to the Masculine without any change in the form of the Masculine :—*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Author	author-ess	Patron	patron-ess
Baron	baron-ess	Peer	peer-ess
Count	count-ess	Poet	poet-ess
Giant	giant-ess	Priest	priest-ess
God	godd-ess	Prince	princ-ess
Heir	heir-ess	Prior	prior-ess
Host	host-ess	Prophet	prophet-ess
Jew	Jew-ess	Shepherd	shepherd-ess
Lion	lion-ess	Viscount	viscount-ess

(b) By adding *ess*, and omitting the vowel of the last syllable of the Masculine :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Actor	actr-ess	Negro	negr-ess
Benefactor	benefactr-ess	Porter	portr-ess
Conductor	conductr-ess	Songster	songstr-ess
Director	directr-ess	Tempter	temptr-ess
Enchanter	enchantr-ess	Tiger	tigr-ess
Hunter	huntr-ess	Traitor	traitr-ess
Instructor	instructr-ess	Votary	votar-ess

(c) By adding *ess* to the Masculine in a less regular way :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Master (boy)	miss (girl)
Duke	duchess	Mr.	Mrs.
Emperor	empress	Marquis }	marchioness
Governor	governess	Marquess }	
Lad	lass	Murderer	murderess
Master (teacher, etc.)	mistress	Sorcerer	sorceress

51. The following modes of distinction between Masculine and Feminine are exceptional :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bridegroom	bride	Fox	vixen
Widower	widow	("Vixen" as Fem. of "fox" is now obsolete.)	

52. Foreign Feminines :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Administrator	administratrix	Hero	heroine
Beau	belle	Prosecutor	prosecutrix
Czar	czarina	Signor	signora
Don	donna	Sultan	sultana
Executor	executrix	Testator	testatrix

53. Double Feminines.—The two examples of this are *songstress* and *seamstress*.

Originally *ster* was a Feminine suffix, as it still is in "spinster." But the Feminine force of *ster* in "songster" and "seamster" has been lost, and so the Feminine form is now shown by changing *er* into *ess*.

54. The following are examples of Nouns in the Common gender :—

Parent—father or mother.

Relation—male or female relation.

Friend—enemy—male or female friend or enemy.

Cousin—male or female cousin.

Bird—cock or hen.

Peafowl—peacock or peahen.

- * Fowl—cock or hen.
- Child—boy or girl, son or daughter.
- * Deer—stag or hind.
- * Fallow-deer—buck or doe.
- Baby (or infant)—male or female baby (or infant).
- Servant—man-servant or maid-servant.
- Monarch—king or queen, emperor or empress.
- Person—man or woman.
- * Pupil—boy student or girl student.
- * Orphan—boy or girl without parents.
- Pig—boar or sow.
- * Sheep—ram or ewe.
- Elephant—male or female elephant.
- Cat—male or female cat.
- Rat—male or female rat.
- Mouse—male or female mouse.
- Fox—male or female fox.
- Cattle—cows alone, or cows and bulls mixed.
- * Swine—sows alone, or sows and boars mixed.
- * Spouse—husband or wife.
- * Foal—colt or filly.
- * Calf—bullock or heifer.

§ 55. There are some Masculine and some Feminine nouns, which, though they have a distinct form for the Feminine and Masculine respectively, can be used as nouns of the Common gender, provided that no question arises as to whether the animal named is a male or a female:—*dog*, *duck*, *horse*, *bee*, *goose*, *colt*.

That is a fine little *colt*.

That *horse* of yours is a splendid stepper.

A *goose* is a much bigger bird than a *duck*.

§ 56. Personified Things.—Inanimate objects or qualities are sometimes spoken of as if they were persons. They are then said to be "personified" (see § 45). Such things are regarded as male or female, and hence the nouns expressing them can be Masculine or Feminine.

A noun, thus made to denote a person, is commenced with a capital letter, as if it were a Proper noun.

✓ As a general rule things remarkable for strength, greatness, superiority, etc., are regarded as males; as the Sun, June, Summer, Winter, Ocean, Thunder, Wind, Death, War, Majesty.

✓ On the other hand, states or qualities expressed by Abstract nouns, and whatever is supposed to possess beauty, fertility, grace, inferiority, etc., are regarded as females; as the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Truth, Justice, Mercy, Charity, Peace, Humility, Jealousy, Pride, Fame, Modesty, Liberty, Flattery, etc. The moon is regarded

as Feminine, because she is an inferior luminary to her supposed brother, the Sun, from whom her rays are borrowed.

There is nothing in the *form* of these personifications which can show the gender. The gender is disclosed by the pronouns *he* or *she*, whenever such pronouns happen to be used instead of the nouns.

A ship, though the noun is not commenced with a capital, is always spoken of as *she*. The same is often said of a railway train.

§ 4.—CASE.

✓ 57. Case defined.—The *relation* in which a noun stands to some other word, or the *change of form* by which this relation is indicated, is called its Case.

✓ 58. There are three Cases in English,—the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

But the Possessive is the only case that is *now* indicated by a case-ending or *change of form*. The other cases have lost their case-endings, and are indicated only by grammatical relation.

✓ 59. When a noun is used as the *subject* to a verb or for the sake of *address*, it is said to be in the *Nominative* case.

Rain falls. (*Nominative of Subject.*)

Are you coming, my *friend*? (*Nominative of Address.*)

✓ 60. When a noun is the *object* to a verb or to a preposition, it is said to be in the *Objective* case.

The man killed a *rat*. (*Object to Verb.*)

The earth is moistened by *rain*. (*Obj. to Prep.*)

✓ 61. The *Possessive* case is so called, because it usually denotes the *possessor* or owner. It is formed by adding 's (which is called *apostrophe s*) to the noun; as—

Singular—man's. | *Plural*—men's.

N.B.—The old inflection for the Possessive case was *es*. When the *e* was omitted, as it now always is, the absence of the *e* was indicated by the comma or apostrophe; as *moon*, *moones*, *moon's*.

✓ 62. There are three kinds of instances in which the apostrophe *s* is omitted:—

✓ (a) After all plural nouns ending in *s*; as—

Horses' tails; the *birds'* nests; the *dogs'* kennels.

✓ (b) Whenever the last syllable of a Singular noun begins and ends with *s*; as—

Moses' laws. (But we must say *Venus's* beauty; *James's* hat, etc.)

✓(c) Whenever the last syllable of a Singular noun ends with *s* or *ce*, and the noun is followed by "sake"; as—

Conscience's sake; for *goodness's* sake. (But we must say—a *mouse's* skin; *James's* smile.)

✓63. Nouns denoting *inanimate* objects are seldom put in the Possessive case. Thus we cannot say, "the *house's* roof"; "the *town's* street"; "the *garden's* fruit"; *Bengal's* seaport"; "human *life's* brevity"; "the *cottage's* door."—

Possession in such cases is indicated by the preposition "of"; or the noun can sometimes be used as if it were an adjective.

✓The flowers *of* summer = the *summer* flowers.

The door *of* the cottage = the *cottage* door.

The light *of* a lamp = a *lamp* light.

X 64. The Possessive case was once used with any kind of noun; but it is now restricted to those shown below:—

✓(1) Nouns denoting *persons*; as—

✓*Gopal's* book; a *man's* foot. (But we cannot say "a *library's* book," "the *mountain's* foot," since "library" and "mountain" are inanimate objects.)

✓(2) Nouns denoting any kind of *living* thing other than man; as—

A *cat's* tail; a *horse's* head; a *bird's* feathers.

✓(3) Nouns denoting *personified* things; as—

Fortune's favourite; *Sorrow's* tears; *England's* heroes.

✓(4) Nouns denoting time, space, or weight; as—

✓Time.—A *day's* journey; a *month's* holiday; three *weeks'* leave; a *year's* absence; at six *months'* sight; three *days'* grace.

✓Space.—A *boat's* length; a *hand's* breadth; a *hair's* breadth; a *razor's* edge; a *stone's* throw; a *needle's* point.

✓Weight.—A *pound's* weight; a *ton's* weight.

✓(5) Nouns signifying certain dignified objects; as—

✓The *court's* decree; the *sun's* rays; the *moon's* crescent; *nature's* works; the *earth's* creatures; the *soul's* delight; *heaven's* will; the *law's* delays; *truth's* triumph; the *mind's* eye; the *ocean's* roar; *duty's* call; the *river's* bank; the *country's* good.

Note.—The Possessive is also used in a few familiar phrases, in which it has been retained for the sake of shortness—

✓Out of *harm's* way; at his *will's* end; for *mercy's* sake; he did it to his *heart's* content; the *ship's* passengers; at his *fingers'* ends; he got to his *journey's* end; the *boat's* crew.

✓65. Possessive Case in Apposition.—When one Possessive

case is in Apposition with another (§ 19), the apostrophe s is added only to that noun which is mentioned last.

Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife.

✓ 66. Possessive Case in Phrases.—The 's may be added to the last word of a phrase, when the phrase is regarded as a Compound noun and denotes some person or persons.

The Government of India's order.

My son-in-law's house.

The Duke of Sutherland's death.

✓ 67. "Of" before a Possessive.—This occurs in such phrases as "that book of James's," "that handsome face of my father's."

Three explanations have been offered:—(1) "Of my father's" is an ellipse for "of my father's faces." Here "faces" is the Object to "of." This is good grammar, but bad sense. (2) "Of my father's" is a Double Possessive. The most probable explanation. (3) The "of" denotes apposition, as in "the continent *of* Asia," which means "the continent, *namely* Asia." Similarly the phrase "that face *of* my father's" can mean "that face, *namely* my father's (face)."

The ambiguity of the preposition "of" is sometimes removed by placing a Possessive noun after it. Thus, "a picture of the Queen" means a picture presenting a likeness of the Queen. But "a picture of the *Queen's*" means a picture of which the Queen is owner.

✓ 68. A noun denoting some kind of place or building is sometimes omitted after a noun in the Possessive case.

I will see you at the barber's (shop).

We found him studying hard at his tutor's (house).

§ 5.—NUMBER.

✓ 69. When *one* thing is spoken of, the noun is *Singular*; when *two* or *more* things are spoken of, the noun is *Plural*.

The only kinds of nouns that (strictly speaking) admit of being pluralised are Common and Collective nouns.

But Proper, Material, and Abstract nouns can also be put in the Plural number, when they are used as Common nouns (§ 46).

70. The general rule for forming the Plural number of a noun is by adding *s* to the Singular; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Hand	hands	House	houses

But if the noun ends in *s*, *x*, *sh*, or *ch*, the Plural is formed by adding *es* to the Singular; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Glass	glass-es	Brush	brush-es
Box	box-es	Bench	bench-es

71. If the noun ends in *y* and the *y* is preceded by a *consonant*, the Plural is formed by changing the *y* into *ies* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Duty	duties	Army	armies
Fly	flies	Lady	ladies

But if the final *y* is preceded by a *vowel* (as in *ay*, *ey*, or *oy*), the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the Singular (in accordance with the general rule given in § 70) :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Day	days	Monkey	monkeys
Play	plays	Toy	toys
Key	keys	Boy	boys

Note.—Nouns ending in *quy* form the Plural in *ies*, because *qu* (= *kw*) is regarded as a double consonant ; as, *colloquy*, *colloquies*.

72. If the noun ends in *o*, and the *o* is preceded by a *consonant*, the Plural is generally formed by adding *es* to the Singular :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Cargo	cargoes	Mango	mangoes
Hero	heroes	Potato	potatoes
Buffalo	buffaloes	Echo	echoes
Motto	mottoes	Tornado	tornadoes
Negro	negroes	Volcano	volcanoes

But all words ending in *oo*, all words ending in *io*, *eo*, or *yo*, and some words ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, form the Plural in *s*, and not in *es* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Bamboo	bamboos	Grotto	grottos
Cuckoo	cuckoos	Halo	halos
Portfolio	portfolios	Memento	mementos
Embryo	embryos	Proviso	provisos
Cameo	cameos	Tiro	tiros
Seraglio	seraglios	Piano	pianos
Hindoo	Hindoos	Canto	cantos
Curio	curios	Solo	solos

There are a few nouns ending in *o* which form the Plural both in *s* and *es* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Calico	calicos or calicoes
Mosquito	mosquitos or mosquitoes
Portico	porticos or porticoes

73. If the noun ends in *f* or *fe*, the Plural is generally formed by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Wife	wives	Calf	calves
Knife	knives	Half	halves
Life	lives	Myself	ourselves
Sheaf	sheaves	Shelf	shelves
Leaf	leaves	Wolf	wolves
Thief	thieves	Elf	elves

But there are some nouns ending in *f* which form the Plural by simply adding *s* (in accordance with the general rule given in § 70) :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Reef	reefs	Wharf	wharfs
Chief	chiefs	Dwarf	dwarfs
Roof	roofs	Turf	turfs
Hoof	hoofs	Gulf	gulfs
Proof	proofs	Cliff	cliffs
Searf	scarfs	Grief	griefs

There are at least three nouns ending in *fe* which form the Plural by simply adding *s* :—

Safe—safes ; strife—strifes ; life—lives.

74. There are eight nouns which form the Plural by a change of the inside vowel :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Louse	lice
Foot	feet	Mouse	mice
Goose	geese	Dormouse	dormice

There are four nouns which form the Plural in *en* or *kin* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Ox	oxen	Brother	brethren (or brothers)
Child	children	Cow	kine (or cows)

75. A compound noun generally forms the Plural by adding *s* to the principal word :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Father-in-law	fathers-in-law	Maid-servant	maid-servants
Son-in-law	sons-in-law	Foot-man	foot-men
Mother-in-law	mothers-in-law	Washer-man	washer-men
Daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law	Knight-errant	knight-errants
Step-son	step-sons	Coat-of-mail	coats-of-mail
Step-daughter	step-daughters	Court-martial	courts-martial
Hanger-on	hangers-on	Commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
Looker-on	lookers-on		
Passer-by	passers-by		

There are four compound nouns which take a double Plural:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man-servant	men-servants	Lord-justice	lords-justices
Woman-servant	women-servants	Knight-Templar	Knights-Templars

In a phrase like "Miss Brown" two different forms are used for the plural. We may either say "the Miss Browns" or "the Misses Brown."

76. Foreign Plurals.—These are some Plurals which have been borrowed direct from foreign nouns:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
	(Latin)		(Greek)
Agendum	agenda	Analysis	analyses
Addendum	addenda	Basis	bases
Datum	data	Crisis	erises
Dietum	dieta	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Effluvium	effluvia	Oasis	oases
Ovum	ova	Parenthesis	parentheses
Erratum	errata	Thesis	theses
Memorandum	memoranda	Phenomenon	phenomena
Medium	media	Criterion	criteria
Stratum	strata (or strata- tums)		(Italian)
Alumnus	alumni	Bandit	banditti (or bandits)
Focus	foci (or foecuses)		(French)
Fungus	fungi	Bean	beaux (or beaus)
Genius	genii	Bureau	bureaux
Radius	radii	Monsieur	messieurs
Terminus	termini (or terminuses)	Madam	mesdames
Formula	formule (or formulas)		(Hebrew)
Genus	genera	Cherub	cherubim (or cherub-)
Stamen	stamina	Seraph	seraphim (or seraphs)
Axis	axes		
Index	indices		
Appendix	appendices		
Series	series		
Species	species		
Apparatus	apparatus		

77. There are some nouns, Singular in form, which are used in a Plural sense.

Cattle.—These cattle are mine.

Vermin.—These vermin do much harm.

Swine.—These swine must be kept out of the garden.

People.—These people have returned home.

Note.—When "people" is used in the sense of "nation," the Plural is "peoples." The use of "swine" as Sing. is now almost obsolete.

X 78. There are some nouns which are either not used at all in the Plural, or are used in the Plural in some special sense.

Abuse.—He gave me much abuse (reproach) for no fault.

Information.—He gave me all the information he had.

Alphabet.—He learnt the alphabet before he could read.

Furniture.—His house is full of good furniture.

X *Offspring*.—These four children are my offspring.

Poetry.—He wrote very good poetry (poems).

Scenery.—These hills are lovely scenery.

Issue.—He had no issue (child or children).

Folk.—The old folk have gone.

Note.—When “abuse” is used in the sense of *wrong use*, the plural is “abuses.” When more than one language is spoken of, the plural of “alphabet” is “alphabets.” When “issue” means *result*, its plural is “issues.”

79. There are some nouns which have the same form for the Plural as for the Singular.

(a) <i>Names of animals.</i>	(b) <i>Nouns of Number.</i>	(c) <i>Weight and Money.</i>
Deer	Yoke (of oxen)	Stone (weight)
Sheep	Brace (of birds)	Hundredweight
Fish, rarely fishes	Dozen	Pice
Heathen	Score	

This deer, these *deer*. That sheep, those *sheep*. That fish, those *fish* (rarely *fishes*). Those *heathen*. Nine *brace* of birds. Four *yoke* of oxen. Ten *dozen* books. Three *score* men. He weighs ten *stone* and a half. That box weighs three *hundredweight*. Three *pice* (Indian money).

80. Some nouns, which take the Plural form at ordinary times, retain the Singular form to express some specific quantity or number.

A ten-*rupee* note. A twelvemonth. A three-foot rule. An eight-day clock. A six-year old horse. A fortnight (which is a contraction of “fourteen nights”). Forty *head* of cattle. Twelve *pound* weight.

< 81. There are some nouns which have two forms in the Plural,—each form with a separate meaning of its own.

Brother	{	Brothers, <i>sons of the same mother.</i>
	{	Brethren, <i>members of the same society.</i>
Cloth	{	Cloths, <i>kinds or pieces of cloth.</i>
	{	Clothes, <i>articles of dress.</i>
Die	{	Dies, <i>stamps for coining.</i>
	{	Dice, <i>small cubes used in games.</i>
Genius	{	Geniuses, <i>men of genius or talent.</i>
	{	Genii, <i>fabulous spirits of the air.</i>
Index	{	Indexes, <i>tables of contents.</i>
	{	Indices, <i>signs used in algebra.</i>

<i>Staff</i>	{ Staves,	<i>sticks or poles.</i>
	{ Staffs,	<i>departments in the army.</i>
<i>Shot</i>	{ Shot,	<i>little balls discharged from a gun.</i>
	{ Shots,	<i>discharges; as, "he had two shots."</i>

82. Nouns which have one meaning in the Singular and another in the Plural:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Advice</i> , counsel.	<i>Advices</i> , information.
<i>Beef</i> , flesh of ox.	<i>Beefs</i> , cattle, bulls and cows.
<i>Compass</i> , range or extent.	<i>Compasses</i> , an instrument.
<i>Good</i> , benefit.	<i>Goods</i> , movable property.
<i>Iron</i> , a metal.	<i>Irons</i> , fetters made of iron.
<i>Physic</i> , medicine.	<i>Physics</i> , natural science.
<i>Return</i> , coming back.	<i>Returns</i> , statistics.
<i>Vesper</i> , evening.	<i>Vespers</i> , evening prayers.
<i>Sand</i> , a kind of matter.	<i>Sands</i> , a tract of sandy land.
<i>Force</i> , strength or energy.	<i>Forces</i> , army.
<i>Air</i> , atmosphere.	<i>Airs</i> , assumed demeanour.

83. Nouns which have two meanings in the Plural against one in the Singular:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Custom</i> , habit.	<i>Customs</i> { 1. Habits. 2. Toll or tax.
<i>Letter</i> { 1. Of alphabet. 2. Epistle.	<i>Letters</i> { 1. Of alphabet. 2. Epistles. 3. Learning.
<i>Pain</i> , suffering.	<i>Pains</i> { 1. Sufferings. 2. Trouble, care.
<i>Effect</i> , result.	<i>Effects</i> { 1. Results. 2. Goods and chattels.
<i>Manner</i> , mode or way.	<i>Manners</i> { 1. Modes, ways. 2. Behaviour.
<i>Number</i> , as in counting.	<i>Numbers</i> { 1. As in counting. 2. Poetry.
<i>Part</i> , portion.	<i>Parts</i> { 1. Portions. 2. Abilities.
<i>Spectacle</i> , anything seen.	<i>Spectacles</i> { 1. Things seen. 2. Glasses to help the sight.
<i>Premise</i> { a statement or pro- position.	<i>Premises</i> { 1. Propositions. 2. Surroundings to a house.
<i>Quarter</i> , a fourth part.	<i>Quarters</i> { 1. Fourth parts. 2. Lodgings.

84. True Singulars used as Plurals.

By a "True Singular" we mean that the final *s* is part of the original Singular noun, and not a sign of the Plural.

Such nouns, though Singular by etymology, are liable to be considered Plural on account of the final *s*; and two of them are now always used as if they were Plural.

Summons.—This noun is still correctly used as a Singular; as, “I received *a* summons to attend”; “*this* summons reached me to-day.” The Plural form is *summonses*.

Alms.—“He asked *an* alms” (New Testament). But now the word is generally used as if it were Plural; as, “I gave alms to the beggar, and for *these* he thanked me.”

Eaves.—The edge or lower borders of the roof of a house. The word is now always used as a Plural; as, “The eaves *are* not yet finished.”

Riches.—This too is really a Singular; as, “In one hour is so great riches come to naught” (New Testament); but now on account of the final *s*, this noun is always used as a Plural; as, “Riches do not last for ever.”

85. True Plurals used as Singulars.

By “True Plurals” are meant nouns in which the final *s* is really a sign of the Plural.

Amends.—This is sometimes used as a Singular and sometimes as a Plural; as, “He made *an* amends”; “I accept *these* amends.”

Means.—This is now almost always used as a Singular; as, “By *this* means.”

News.—This is now almost always used as a Singular; as, “Ill news *runs* apace.”

Innings.—This is a word used in cricket to denote the turn for going in and using the bat. It is *always* used as a Singular; as, “We have not yet had *an* innings”; “our eleven beat the other by *an* innings and ten runs.”

Gallows.—The frame-work from which criminals are hanged. This noun is used as a Singular; as, “They fixed up *a* gallows.”

Odds.—A word used in betting, to denote the difference of one wager against another. “We gave him *a* heavy odds against ourselves.” Sometimes this noun is used as a Plural.

86. Of the following nouns some seldom, others never, take a Singular. These are for the most part names of things, which imply plurality or consist of more parts than one:—

- (a) Instruments or tools:—*arms* (in the sense of weapons), *bellows*, *fettors*, *pincers*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *shears*, *snuffers*, *tweezers*.
- (b) Articles of dress:—*breeches*, *drawers*, *pantaloon*s, *trappings*, *trousers*, *hose*.
- (c) Kinds of disease:—*measles*, *mumps*, *staggers*, *small-pox* (originally spelt as *small-pocks*).
- (d) Parts of the body:—*bowels*, *entrails*, *intestines*, *giblets*.

- (e) The names of sciences or subjects ending in *ics*; such as *physics*, *politics*, *ethics*, *metaphysics*, etc.

(These nouns are Plural, because the corresponding Greek words, from which they have been transliterated, are Plural.)

- (f) Miscellaneous words; such as *ashes*, *annals*, *assets*, *dregs*, *embers*, *chattels*, *lees*, *nuptials*, *obsequies*, *shambles*, *statistics*, *victuals*, *hustings*, *proceeds*, *thanks*, *tidings*, *downs*, *suds*, *wages*, *chaps*, *auspices*, *billiards*, *environs*, *theirs*, *mews*, *contents*, *credentials*, etc. (The phrase "a living wage" has come into use.)

§- Parsing Model for Nouns.

- (a) *Boys learn grammar in the class.*

Boys—Common noun, plural number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "learn."

Learn—Verb.

Grammar—Abstract noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb "learn."

In—Preposition, having "class" for its object.

The—Adjective qualifying "class."

Class—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition "in."

- (b) *Cow's milk is often drunk by young children.*

Cow's—Common noun, singular number, feminine gender, possessive case.

Milk—Material noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "is drunk."

Often—Adverb of time, qualifying the verb "is drunk."

Is drunk—Verb.

By—Preposition, having "children" for its object.

Young—Adjective qualifying "children."

Children—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition "by."

- (c) *The flock of sheep is eating grass in James's orchard.*

The—Adjective qualifying "flock."

Flock—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "is eating."

Of—Preposition, having "sheep" for its object.

Sheep—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition "of."

Is eating—Verb.

Grass—Material noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb "is eating."

In—Preposition, having "orchard" for its object.

James's—Proper noun, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case.

Orchard—Common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition "in."

CHAPTER III.—ADJECTIVES.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

87. **Adjective defined.**—An Adjective is a word used to qualify a noun (§ 14).

In parsing an adjective this is the definition invariably used, and it is therefore convenient to retain it. But it needs explanation. An adjective, as we know, denotes a property of some kind or other. When we say that it qualifies or modifies a noun, we mean that it *restricts* the application of the noun to such persons or things as possess the property denoted by the adjective.

Every adjective, therefore, has a *restrictive* force; and it might be defined as “*a word used to restrict the application of a noun.*”¹

88. There are altogether six different kinds of Adjectives:—

(1) **Proper**: describing a thing by some *Proper noun*.

X (2) **Descriptive**:² showing *of what quality* or *in what state* a thing is.

(3) **Quantitative**: showing *how much* of a thing is meant.

(4) **Numeral**: showing *how many* things or *in what order*.

(5) **Demonstrative**: showing *which* or *what* thing is meant.

(6) **Distributive**: showing that things are taken *separately* or *in separate lots*.

Proper Adjectives.

89. Proper Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such persons or things as are included within the scope of some Proper name. (A Proper adjective must begin with a capital letter.)

The *Indian* plains = the plains of India.

A *Chinese* pilgrim = a pilgrim from China.

The *Turkish* empire = the empire of the Turks.

The *Gangetic* plain = the plain watered by the Ganges.

The *English* language = the language of England.

¹ This is an abridged form of the definition given by Mason, who, in *English Grammar*, p. 37, § 88, defines an adjective thus:—“An adjective is a word which may limit (=restrict) the application of a noun to that which has the quality, the quantity, or the relation which the adjective denotes.”

² The name “Descriptive” for adjectives denoting *quality* or *state* has been adopted from Mason’s Grammar.

Descriptive Adjectives:—Quality or State.

90. Descriptive Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such persons or things as possess the *quality* or are in the *state* denoted by the adjective.

A *brave* boy ; a *sick* lion ; a *tame* cat ; a *large* field ; a *black* horse ; an *industrious* student ; a *careful* workman.

Quantitative Adjectives:—Quantity or Degree.

91. Quantitative Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such things as are of the *quantity* or *degree* denoted by the adjective.

The chief adjectives of this class are—*Much, little ; no or none ; some, any ; enough or sufficient ; all or whole, half.*

He ate *much* (a large quantity of) bread.

He ate *little* (a small quantity of) bread.

He ate *no* bread. I had *none*.

He ate *some* (a certain quantity of) bread.

He did not eat *any* (any quantity of) bread.

He ate *enough* or *sufficient* bread.

He ate *all* the (the *whole* quantity of) bread.

A *half* holiday is better than *now*.

Note.—"No" is used when the noun that it qualifies is expressed.

"None" is used when the noun is understood.

✕ 92. Adjectives of Quantity are always followed by a *Singular* noun ; and this noun must always be either a noun of *Material* or an *Abstract* noun ; as "much bread" (noun of *Material*) ; "much pain" (a high degree of pain, *Abstract* noun).

Note.—It is idiomatic to speak of a *quantity* of matter (*Material* noun), and a *degree* of some quality (*Abstract* noun). Hence adjectives of Quantity have also been called adjectives of Degree.

✕ 93. Some, any.—There is much difference in the way in which these two adjectives are used :—

(a) Some is used in *affirmative* sentences ; as—

"He has procured *some* bread." We cannot say, "He has procured *any* bread."

✕ (b) Any is used in *negative* sentences ; as—

"He has *not* procured *any* bread." We cannot say, "He has not procured *some* bread."

But although "any" is used in negative sentences like the above, we must never say "no any," as is occasionally done by some students. Thus we must not say, "He has procured *no any* bread" ; but we must say, "He has *not* procured *any* bread," or "He has procured *no* bread."

(c) Any and some can both be used in *interrogative* sentences :—

Has he procured *any* bread?
Has he procured *some* bread?

But in such sentences "any" is more commonly used than "some," and is to be preferred to it.

94. Little, a little, the little.—Each of these expressions has a distinct meaning of its own :—

(a) Little is a *negative* adjective, and means "not much."
He had *little* money=(not much money).

(b) A little is an *affirmative* adjective, and means "some at least":—a certain quantity, however little.

He had *a little* money=(some money at least, although the amount was small).

(c) The little implies two statements—one *negative*, and the other *affirmative*.

He spent the *little* money he had.

That is—(1) The money he had was not much. (*Negative.*)
(2) He spent all the money that he had. (*Affirmative.*)

Numeral Adjectives.

95. Numeral Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such persons or things as are of the *number* or are in the *serial order* denoted by the adjective.

Numeral Adjectives are subdivided into two main classes :—

I. Definite.

II. Indefinite.

96. Definite numerals denote some *exact* number.

Those which show *how many* things there are (as one, two, three, four, etc.) are called **Cardinals**.

Those which show the *serial order* in which a thing stands (as first, second, third, etc.) are called **Ordinals**.

Those which show *how often* a thing is *repeated* are called **Multiplicative**.

Cardinals. *Ordinals.*

Multiplicatives.

One

first

one only, single, simple

Two

second

twofold, double

Three

third

threefold, treble, triple

Four

fourth

fourfold, quadruple (four times one)

Six

sixth

sixfold (six times one)

Seven

seventh

sevenfold (seven times one)

97. Indefinite numerals denote number of some kind without saying precisely what the number is. For this reason they are called Indefinite.

The chief adjectives of this class are:—

All, some, enough, no or none; many, few; several, sundry.

All men are mortal.

Some men die young.

No men were present.

Ten men will be enough.

Many men are poor.

Few men are rich.

Several men came.

Sundry men went away.

A Definite numeral can be made Indefinite by placing the word *some* or *about* before it:—

Some twenty men (=about twenty men, twenty men more or less) were present.

98. The words “some,” “enough,” “all,” “no or none,” are adjectives of *Number* or adjectives of *Quantity*, according to the sense.

If the noun qualified by such words is either Material or Abstract, the adjective belongs to the class of Quantity, as has been explained in § 92. But if the noun is a Common noun (or one used as a Common noun), and capable therefore of being in the Plural number, the adjective belongs to the class of Numeral:—

Quantitatives.

Numerals.

Much; he had much bread.

Many; he had many loaves of bread.

Little; he had little bread.

Few; he had few loaves of bread.

Enough; he had enough bread.

Enough; he had loaves enough.

Some; he had some bread.

Some; he had some loaves of bread.

No; he had no bread.

No; he had no loaves of bread.

All; he had all the bread.

All; he had all the loaves of bread.

Any; have you had any bread?

Any; did you bring any loaves?

99. *Few, a few, the few.*—Each of these expressions has a distinct meaning of its own:—

(a) *Few* is a *Negative* adjective, and signifies “not many.”

He read *few* books (he did *not* read *many* books).

(b) *A few* is an *Affirmative* adjective, and signifies “some at least”:—a certain number, however few.

He read *a few* books (that is, he read *some* books *at least*, though the number was small).

(c) *The few* implies two statements, one *Negative* and the other *Affirmative*.

He read the *few* books he had.

That is—(1) The books he had were not many. (*Negative*.)

(2) He read all the books he had. (*Affirmative*.)

100. Many a, a many.—The former phrase is followed by *Singular* nouns, and the latter by *Plural* ones :—

(a) Many a.—Here “a” = “one”; “many a man” means “many times one man,” or “many men.” Hence “many” has here the force of a Multiplicative numeral :

*Many a youth and many a maid
Dancing 'neath the greenwood shade.—Milton.*

(b) A many.—Here “many” has the force of a *Collective noun*, and *of* is understood after it :—

*They have not shed a many tears,
Dear eyes, since first I knew them well.—Tennyson.
This many summers on a sea of glory.—Shakespeare.*

In prose it is more common to put in the word “great” between *a* and *many*. “A great many men” means “a large number of men,” the *of* being understood, and *many* having the force of a *Collective noun*. Similarly in such a phrase as “a few books,” we might regard *a few* as a *Collective noun*, the “*of*” being understood after it.

N.B.—In Old English “menig” was a *Collective Noun*, signifying “a multitude or large number,” and “manig” was an *Indefinite Numeral Adjective*, signifying “many.” In modern English the same word “many” stands for both; for it is equivalent to “menig” in the phrase *a many*, and to “manig” in the phrase *many a* or simply *many*. Shakspeare has “a *many of* our bodies.”

101. Definite Numeral Quantities are sometimes *Collective nouns*; and, as in the case of “many,” the *of* is understood after them.

*A dozen (of) sheep; a million (of) apples.
A hundred (of) years; a thousand (of) years.
A hundred-thousand (of) rupees. (But we must say: “a hundred
rupees,” and not “a lac rupees.”)*

Demonstrative Adjectives.

102. Demonstrative Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to those persons or things that are intended to be *pointed out* by the adjective.

The word *Demonstrative* means “pointing out.”

103. Adjectives of this kind are subdivided (as Numeral adjectives are) into two main classes :—

I. Definite. II. Indefinite.

When a person or thing is pointed out *exactly*, as “this man,” the adjective is called a **Definite Demonstrative**.

When it is pointed out in a certain sense, but *not exactly*, it is called an Indefinite Demonstrative:—

Definite.		Indefinite.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
The	the	A, an	nil.
This	these	One, any	any
That, yon, yonder	those, yon, yonder	A certain	certain
Such	such	Such	such
The same, or self-same	the same, or self-same	Some	some
The other	the other	Another, any other	other, any other

Demonstrative adjectives are few in number, and all of them are given in the above list.

104. The adjective "*the*" is generally called the Definite Article, and "*a*" or *an* is called the Indefinite Article (§ 15).

An is used before a vowel or silent *h*; as—

An apple; *an* egg; *an* ink-bottle; *an* heir; *an* hour; *an* honest man; *an* ox.

A is used before a consonant, before *u* sounded as *yoo*, and before *o* sounded as *wu*:—

A kite; *a* cart; *a* bottle; *a* useful thing; *a* unit; *a* one-eyed man.

Even before an aspirated *h* we use *an*, provided the accent is on the *second* syllable:—thus, we say "*a* his-to-ry," because here the accent is on the *first* syllable "*his*"; but we say "*an* his-tor'-i-cal account," because here the accent is on the *second* syllable "*tor*."

105. Definite Demonstratives.—The uses of these adjectives are shown below:—

(a) This, these.—Something *near at hand* is pointed to by these adjectives; as—

This tree; *these* trees.

They are sometimes used in the sense of possession by way of emphasis; as—

These eyes (=my own eyes) saw the deed.

✓ (b) That, those, yon, yonder.—These adjectives point to something *farther off*; as—

That tree; *those* trees; *yon* or *yonder* tree (or trees).

Note.—"Yon or yonder" is seldom seen except in poetry. They can be used with nouns of either number.

✓ (c) Such.—This adjective means *of this or that kind*, and

refers either (1) to something just mentioned, or (2) to something just going to be mentioned :—

- (1) His praise of me was not sincere : I do not like *such* a man (or *such* men).
- (2) *Such* food as we get here does not suit me.

“Such” is also used as an *Indefinite Demonstrative*. In this case it does not refer to anything previously mentioned, but is vague or indefinite.

He called at my house on *such* a day (=some day or other), and I gave *such* and *such* an answer (some answer or other) to his questions.

✓ *Note.*—“So,” the adverbial form of “such,” is similarly used in an Indefinite sense.

A week or so (that is, a week more or less).

✓ (d) **The same, self-same, very same.**—These adjectives all refer to something previously mentioned. “Self-same” and “very same” are more emphatic than “same.”

You told him to come here to-morrow ; and I gave him *the same* (or *the self-same*, or *the very same*) answer.

(e) **The other.**—This denotes the *second* of two things previously mentioned, while “*the one*” denotes the first :—

Two women shall be grinding at the mill ; *the one* shall be taken, and *the other* left.—*New Testament*.

“The other day.”—This peculiar phrase has an *Indefinite* sense, and means *any* day (some day or other) recently preceding and therefore distinct from the present :—

He came to see me *the other day* (=a few days ago, some day or other which I cannot exactly remember).

✓ 106. The Definite Demonstratives are very frequently used to point out the noun, which stands as antecedent to some relative pronoun following :—

This man whom you now see came here to-day.

That book which you are reading is mine.

He is not *such* a clever student as you are.

You are reading *the same book that* I read many years ago.

107. The Indefinite Demonstratives are used as follows :—

(a) **A, an, a certain.**—These are used with singular nouns, to show that no person or thing in particular is intended or specified ; as, “a man,” “a certain man,” “an apple.” *Certain* is used with Plural nouns in the same sense ; as, “certain men.”

✓ (b) *One*.—This word is generally a Numeral adjective; but it may also be used as an Indefinite Demonstrative in such sentences as the following:—

He came *one* day (on a certain day which I cannot remember) to see me.

✓ *One* Mr. James (a certain man whom I do not know, but who is called Mr. James) came to see me.

✓ (c) *Any*.—This is more emphatic than “a” or “an”; it can be used with Plural as well as Singular nouns:—

Any man (that is, any and every man) could do that.

You may take *any* books (no books in particular, but any books) that you like best.

✓ (d) *Some*.—This is used in two senses—(1) as showing that no person or thing in particular is specified; (2) for making a Definite number Indefinite (see § 97).

✓ (1) *Some* man (I do not know who he was) called here to-day.

✓ (2) He owes me *some* 20 rupees (*about* 20 rupees, *more or less*).

✓ (e) *Another*, *any other*, *other*. — “*Another*” (with Singular nouns) and “*other*” (with Plural ones) are used in *affirmative* sentences; but “*any other*” (with nouns in either number) is used in *negative* ones; as—

✓ We have seen *another* man (or *other* men) to-day.

We have *not* seen *any other* man or men to-day.

✓ “*Other*” is sometimes followed by “*than*,” and in this case it should be placed immediately before it, or as close to it as possible:—

He has no books *other than* Sanskrit.

✓ This is better than saying, “he has no other books than Sanskrit.” Here “*other than*” means “different from” or “except.” “He has no books except Sanskrit.” “*Than*” is here a preposition.

✱ 108. *Some*, *any*.—It depends upon the sense whether these are *Demonstrative* Adjectives, or Adjectives of *Quantity*, or Adjectives of *Number*.

Some	(1)	<i>Some</i> man called here to-day	Indef. Demons.
	(2)	Give me <i>some</i> bread	Quant.
	(3)	Give me <i>some</i> loaves of bread	Number.
Any	(1)	Take <i>any</i> book that you like best	Demons.
	(2)	He has not had <i>any</i> bread	Quant.
	(3)	Did you bring <i>any</i> loaves?	Number.

✓ Both of these adjectives are Indefinite; but, as may be

seen from the following examples, "some" is the least Indefinite of the two :—

- Did *any* man call here to-day? Yes; *some* man did call.
 ✕ Take *any* books that you like; but you must take *some*.
 Can you come at *some* hour to-day? Yes, at *any* hour you like.

Distributive Adjectives.

109. Distributive Adjectives restrict the application of a noun by showing that the persons or things denoted by the noun are taken *singly*, or *in separate lots*.

110. There are four Adjectives of this class:—*each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

(a) *Each*.—This means one of *two* things or one of any number *exceeding two* :—

The *two* men had *each* a gun.
 The *twenty* men had *each* a gun.

(b) *Every*.—This is never used for one of two, but always for some number *exceeding two* :—

Every man (out of the *twenty* present) had a gun.

Note.—"Every" is a stronger word than "each," and means "*each without exception*":—"all the individuals of a group, taken *singly*."

"Every six hours" and similar expressions.—This means *every period or space of six hours*, six hours being taken collectively as *one period of time* :—

He felt hungry *every five hours* (=at the close of every space of five hours).

"Every other."—This means *every second* or *each alternate*; as—

He was attacked with fever *every other day* (=on every second day or on each alternate day).

(c) *Either*.—This has two meanings—(1) *one of two*, or (2) *each of two*—that is, *both*.

(1) You can take *either* side; that is, one side or the other.

(2) The river overflowed on *either* side; that is, on both sides.

(d) *Neither*.—This is the negative of "either," and signifies "*neither the one nor the other*" :—

"You should take *neither* side"; that is, neither this side nor that, neither the one side nor the other.

111. Each other, one another.—In these phrases we have a Distributive adjective (*each* = *one*) combined with an Indefinite Demonstrative adjective (*other* or *another*):—

(a) “Each other” is used when *two* persons or things are concerned; as—

The two men struck *each other* (that is, *each* man struck the *other* man).

(b) “One another” is used when *more than two* persons or things are concerned; as—

They all loved *one another* (that is, each man loved every other man).

112. The drift of a Distributive adjective can also be expressed in the following ways:—

(a) By the preposition “*by*”:—

They went out *two by two*, or *by twos* (in separate pairs).

(b) By “*and*,” in such phrases as “two and two,” “three and three”:—

They went out *two and two* (in separate pairs).

(c) By the phrase “*at a time*”:—

They went out *two at a time* (in separate pairs).

(d) By the phrase “*a piece*”:—

The twenty men had a gun *a piece* (had each a gun).

(e) By the adjective “*respective*”:—

They went to their *respective* homes (each to his own).

§ 2.—THE TWO USES OF ADJECTIVES.

113. There are two different ways in which an Adjective can be used—(a) the Attributive, and (b) the Predicative.

(a) *Attributive use*.—An adjective is used attributively, when it qualifies its noun *directly*, so as to make a kind of compound noun:—

A *lame* horse. A *noble* character.

All true adjectives can be used attributively. But we cannot say “an asleep man,” because “asleep” and similar words are not adjectives, but adverbs (§ 267, 2).

(b) *Predicative use*.—An adjective is used predicatively, when it is made part of the Predicate of a sentence. It then qualifies its noun *indirectly*—through the verb.

That horse went *lame*. His character is *noble*.

An adjective so used is a form of Complement to the verb going before (§ 25), because it completes what the verb left unsaid.

§ 3.—SUBSTITUTES FOR ADJECTIVES.

114. An Adjective, as we have shown in § 87, is a qualifying or *restrictive* word. Any word or words that restrict a noun in the same way as an adjective would restrict it, may be considered to be substitutes for an adjective:—

(1) A Participle (or Verbal adjective, § 18):—

A fading flower. A fallen tree.

(2) An Adverb with some participle understood:—

The then (reigning) king. The down (going) train.

(3) A Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective:—

A river fish (=a fish living in rivers).

A bathing place (=a place used for bathing).

(4) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case:—

My book. Their friendship. My son's teacher.

(5) A Verb in the Infinitive mood:—

A chair to sit on. Water to drink.

(6) A Preposition with its object:—

A man of virtue (=a virtuous man).

(7) An Adjective clause—that is, a clause which does the work of an adjective; (see clause defined in § 5).

The book that you lent me will not be lost.

§ 4.—ON THE IDIOMATIC USES OF ARTICLES.

115. As a general rule, a *Common* noun in the *Singular* number should have an article placed before it. Thus we should not say, "I saw *dog*"; but "I saw *a dog* or *the dog*."

(a) If we wish to *particularise* the noun, we use the *Definite* article:—

Let us go and bathe in *the river* (that is, the river near our house, or the river where we usually bathe).

This settles *the matter* (that is, the matter in which we are engaged).

✓ They struck him in *the face* (that is, in his own face).

(b) If we wish to *generalise* the noun, we use the *Indefinite* article:—

A tiger is a fierce animal (that is, any tiger; or tigers generally).

A cat is not so faithful as *a dog*.

Note.—Since "*a*" is a contraction of "*one*" (§ 15), it is sometimes used in the sense of "*one*."

✚ *A stitch* (=one stitch) in time saves nine.

✓ Two of *a trade* (=of the same trade) should live apart.

116. When a *Common* noun is used in the *Plural* number, the *Definite* article should not be placed before it, unless we wish to particularise the noun.

Storks gobble up *frogs*.

But if we are talking about some particular storks and some particular frogs, that might be in some pool of water close at hand, we should say—

Look ! *the* storks are gobbling up *the* frogs.

117. An article is not placed before a *Proper*, *Material*, or *Abstract* noun, except when any of these is used as a *Common* noun (§ 46).

He is *the Nestor* (=the oldest man) of the service.

Sugar-cane is one of *the grasses* (=kinds of grass).

He is *a justiee* of the peace.

118. "*The*" is sometimes used to indicate a *class* or *kind* of anything. One individual is thus made to represent the entire class.

The lion is the king of beasts.

The rose is the most beautiful of flowers.

The liar shall not go unpunished.

119. When "*the*" is placed before a *Common* noun, it sometimes gives it the meaning of an *Abstract* noun.

He felt *the patriot* (the patriotic spirit or feeling) rise within his breast.
He acted *the lord* (the lordly or overbearing character) wherever he went.

He allowed *the father* (his fatherly feelings) to be overruled by *the judge* (his sense of duty as a judge), and declared his own son to be guilty.

120. As a general rule a *Proper* noun should not have "*the*" placed before it. But the following are exceptions :—

- (a) Names of rivers ; as, *the Ganges, the Indus, the Nerbudda, the Rhine, the Danube*.
- (b) Names of *groups* of islands ; as, *the Andaman Islands, the East Indies, the Hebrides*. (But *individual* islands do not have *the* placed before them ; as, Ceylon, Ireland, Sicily.)
- (c) Names of *ranges* of mountains ; as, *the Himalayas, the Vindhya, the Alps*. (But *individual* mountains do not have *the* placed before them ; as, Mount Abu, Mount Everest, Parasnath.)
- (d) Names of straits, gulfs, seas, and oceans ; as, *the Palk Straits ; the Straits of Babelmandeb ; the Gulf of Cambay ; the Persian Gulf ; the Bay of Bengal ; the Arabian Sea ; the Mediterranean Sea ; the Indian Ocean ; the Atlantic Ocean*.

(e) The name of a province is very seldom preceded by "*the*"; as, Bengal, Behar, Orissa, Assam, Oudh, etc. In India the only exception is "*the Punjab*."

(f) The article is usually placed before the proper names of books; as, *the Bible*; *the Ramayan*.

But if a book is called after its author, the article is not used; as, "I have read *Shakspeare*."

Note.—"The" is not placed before the names of towns (as London, Calcutta); nor before the names of capes (as Cape Comorin, Cape Horn); nor before the names of countries (as England, India); nor before the names of continents (as Asia, Europe); nor before the names of *single* islands (as Ceylon, Sicily); nor before the names of *single* mountains (as Mount Abu, Parasnath, Everest); nor before the names of lakes (as Lake Sambhar, Lake Chilka, Lake Huron).

↓ 121. **Omission of Article**.—As a general rule a Common noun in the Singular number should have some article placed before it (see § 115).

But the following exceptions should be noted:—

(a) Names of titles or professions; as—

Queen Victoria; *King George I.*; *Lord Ashly*; *Saint Paul*; *Judge Anson*; *General Roberts*; *Father Ignatius*; *Victoria, Queen of England*; *George I., King of England*; *Kareem Bux, Carpenter*; *Ram Dutt, Goldsmith*; *Jugal Kishore, Banker or Mahdjan*; *Krishna Mohan, Brahman*.

↓ (b) In certain well-established phrases, consisting of a Transitive verb followed by its Object, the Common noun which follows the verb is used without any distinction of article or number:—

The trees struck *root* (not *the roots*) into the ground.

The boys leave *school* (not *the school*) at four o'clock.

Students must give *ear* (not *the ears*) to what the teacher tells them.

He sent *word* that he would come soon.

You cannot set *foot* in this house.

He shook *hands* with his old friends.

We will keep *house* in this village.

The king resolved to give *battle* to his enemies.

The sailors cast *anchor* for the night, and set *sail* again next day.

The pile of logs has taken *fire*, or caught *fire*.

He took *breath*, when he rose up out of the water.

↓ (c) In phrases consisting of a Preposition followed by its Object, the article is omitted before the Common noun, when such phrases are intended to be used *for all persons and on all occasions* alike:—

Some came *by land*, and some *by water*.

It would be better to go *on foot* than *on horseback*.

He is out *at sea*, *on board ship*.

A rat is quite *at home*, when it is *under ground*.
 Men who are *in jail* are sometimes made to work *out of doors*.
 He is a scholar *by name*, but not *in fact*.
 He fell sick *at school*, and is now *in bed*.
 Those who work hard *by day* must not work *by night* also.
 He is *over head and ears in debt*, or *in trouble*, etc.
 He begins work *at daybreak* and leaves off *at sunset*.
 Such food is not fit *for man or beast*.
 Speak the truth *in court*, whether you have been *at fault* or not.
 We shall never get this either *for love or money*.
 The ship is riding *at anchor*, and the sailors are now *at ease*.
 This will be paid *at sight* or *on demand*.
 I met your old friend *at dinner* to-day.
 He lends out money *at interest*; for he has much cash *in hand*.

✓ § 5.—ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

122. An adjective can be used for a noun for the sake of shortness. The noun in this case is sometimes understood, and sometimes altogether cancelled.

123. The Noun is cancelled, and the change from Adjective to Noun is complete, when the word can be used in the Plural number or in the Possessive case. Such a change is complete, because no Adjectives take the Possessive case-ending, and none but "*this*" and "*that*" have a distinct form for the Plural number.

Nobles=noble men or noblemen.

A *noble's* house=a nobleman's house.

I have told you many *secrets*=secret things.

124. In using a Proper adjective to denote some language, no article is placed before it, and no noun is expressed.

He speaks *English*, but not *Hindi*.

The grammar of *English* is simpler than that of *Persian*.

✓125. Some adjectives are used as nouns in the Singular only, some in the Plural only, and some in both:—

(a) *Singular only*:—

Our all. The whole. Our best. Our worst. Much (as, Much has been done). More (as, More has been done). Little (as, Little has been done). Less (as, Less has been done).

(b) *Plural only*:—

Opposites. Morals. Contraries. Particulars (=details). Movables. Eatables. Drinkables. Valuables. Greens (=green vegetables). Sweets and bitters (=the sweet and bitter contingencies of life). Our betters (=men better than ourselves). Our equals. The ancients. The moderns. The Commons.

(c) *Singular and Plural*.—

A secret; secrets. A liquid; liquids. A solid; solids. A total; totals. A capital; capitals. An elder; elders. A senior; seniors. A jester; jesters. A native; natives. A mortal; mortals. An inferior; inferiors. A superior; superiors. A criminal; criminals, etc.

126. Participles (which, in fact, are Verbal adjectives, see § 18) are sometimes used as Nouns in the Plural number, as ordinary adjectives are.

He came here with all his *belongings*.

I am much pleased with my *several adops*.

Let *ignorances be ignorances* (let past offences be forgotten).

127. There are certain colloquial or idiomatic phrases in which adjectives go in pairs, some noun being understood after them:—

From bad to worse. "He is going from bad to worse" (from a bad state to a worse one).

The long and short. "The long and short (the sum and substance) of the matter is," etc.

In black and white. "Let me see it in black and white" (written with black ink on white paper).

Through thick and thin. "He makes his way through thick and thin" (through thick or difficult obstacles and through thin or easy ones).

From first to last. "from the beginning to the end."

At sixes and sevens. In a state of disorder. "The men of the house were all at sixes and sevens" (in a state of discord). "Everything in the city is at sixes and sevens" (in a state of confusion).

High and low. "He searched for his property high and low" (in high places and low ones, everywhere, up and down).

Right or wrong. "I intend to do this, right or wrong" (whether the act is right or not).

For better, for worse. "She married you for better, for worse" (for any good or evil that may fall to your lot hereafter).

Tight and loose. "He plays tight and loose" (with a tight or loose hold, as he may prefer; that is, at random, recklessly).

Black and blue. "He beat them black and blue" (so as to bring out black and blue marks on the skin).

Right and left. "He struck out right and left" (to this side and that side).

Slow and steady. "Slow and steady (patient and steady progress) wins the race."

For good, for good and all.—finally, permanently; for all future consequences, good or evil.

128. Adjectives preceded by "the."—When an adjective is preceded by the Definite article, it can be used as a Noun in the three senses shown below:—

✓ (1) As a Common noun denoting *Persons* only, and usually in a *Plural* sense :—

None but *the brave* (=those men who are brave) deserves the fair.

To *the pure* (=those persons who are pure) all things are pure.

✓ *The blind* receive their sight ; *the lame* walk ; *the dumb* speak ; *the dead* are raised up ; to *the poor* the gospel is preached.—*New Testament*.

✓ (2) As an Abstract noun (*Singular*) :—

The good = that quality which is good, = goodness in general.

The beautiful = that quality which is beautiful, = beauty in general.

✓ All the motions of his nature were towards *the true, the natural, the sweet, the gentle*.—*De Quincey*.

✓ (3) As a name for some particular part of a thing :—

- The white* (=the white part) of the eye.
- The vitals* (=the most vital parts) of the body.
- The thick* (=the thickest parts) of the forest.
- The wilds* (=the wild parts) of a country.
- The interior* (=the inside part) of a house.
- The exteriors* (=the outside parts) of a house.
- The middle* (=the middle part) of a river.
- The small* (=the smallest part) of the back.

§ 6.—COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

✓ 129. Most adjectives of Quality, two adjectives of Quantity, viz. *much* and *little*, and two adjectives of Number, viz. *many* and *few*, have degrees of comparison.

All other adjectives of Quantity and Number, all Proper, Demonstrative, and Distributive adjectives, and a few Descriptive adjectives of such kind as *blue, square, circular, solar, lunar, oblong, annual, monthly, vegetable, mineral, milky, golden*, etc., cannot, from the kind of meaning contained in them, have degrees of comparison.

✓ 130. The degrees of comparison are three in number—the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

✓ The Positive denotes the simple quality ; as, “a *beautiful* horse.”

✓ The Comparative denotes a higher degree of the quality ; as, “a *more beautiful* horse.” This is used when *two* things of the same class are compared together.

✓ The Superlative denotes the highest degree of the quality ; as, “the *most beautiful* horse.” This is used when *one* thing is compared with *all other* things of the same class.

131. In all adjectives of *more than two syllables*, and in most adjectives of two syllables, the Comparative is formed

by adding "*more*" and the Superlative by adding "*most*," as in the examples already given.

132. But adjectives of one syllable and some adjectives of two syllables can also form the Comparative by adding *er* or *r*, and the Superlative by adding *est* or *st* :—

(a) If the Positive ends in *two consonants*, or in a *single consonant* preceded by *two vowels*, *er* and *est* are added :—

Small	smaller	smallest
Thick	thicker	thickest
Great	greater	greatest
Deep	deeper	deepest

(b) If the Positive ends in *one consonant*, and the consonant is preceded by a *short vowel*, the final consonant is doubled when *er* and *est* are added :—

Thin	thinner	thinnest
Fat	fatter	fattest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Wet	wetter	wettest

(c) If the Positive ends in *e*, only *r* and *st* are added, and not *er* and *est* :—

Brave	braver	bravest
Wise	wiser	wisest
True	truer	truest

(d) If the Positive ends in *y*, and the *y* is preceded by a *consonant*, the *y* is changed into *i*, when *er* and *est* are added :—

Happy	happier	happiest
Dry	drier	driest

(e) If the *y* is preceded by a *vowel*, the *y* is not changed into *i* :—

Gay	gayer	gayest
Grey	greyer	greyest

133. Some adjectives form their Comparatives and Superlatives in an irregular way :—

Bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
Fore	former	foremost, first
Good	better	best
Hind	hinder	hindmost
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Little	less	least
Much (quantity)	more	most
Many (number)	more	most
Nigh	nigher	highest, next
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

There are six words which are adverbs in the Positive degree, but adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative:—

Fore	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest
In	inner	innermost, inmost
Out	outer, utter	uttermost, utmost
Be-neath	nether	nethermost
Up	upper	uppermost

The noun "top," used as an adjective, has the Superlative form, "topmost." But it has no Comparative.

134. Positive Degree.—When two persons or things are said to be *equal* in respect of some quality, we use the *Positive* degree with *as . . . as*, or with some equivalent phrase:—

This boy is *as* clever *as* that.

This boy is *no less* clever *than* that.

That boy is *not more* clever *than* this.

135. Comparative Degree.—When two persons or things are said to be *unequal* in respect of some quality, we use the *Comparative* degree:—

(a) This boy is more clever or cleverer *than* that.

(b) This boy is *the* cleverer *of the two*.

Note 1.—Forms (a) and (b) do not mean entirely the same thing. Form (a) merely denotes *superiority*. Form (b) denotes the *selection* of the one in preference to the other.

Note 2.—The learner should guard against the blunder that some students are apt to make of using *from* instead of *than* after the Comparative degree, as in the following examples:—

This boy is cleverer *from* me.

My book is more instructive *from* yours.

Work is more healthy *from* idleness.

It will help him to guard against the above error, if he will remember that *than* is usually a Conjunction and that *from* is invariably a Preposition.

This boy is cleverer than I (am).

My book is more instructive than yours (is instructive).

Work is more healthy than idleness (is healthy).

136. Superlative Degree.—When one person or thing is said to surpass all other persons or things of the same kind, we use the *Superlative* degree with *the . . . of*.

This boy is *the* cleverest *of* all.

Note 1.—The Superlative degree can also be expressed by the Comparative, in the following way :—

This boy is more clever than *all other* boys.

If this mode of expression is used, care must be taken not to leave out the word "*other*"; for there is no sense in saying "this boy is more clever than all boys."

Note 2.—Sometimes the adjective "*very*," in the sense of actual or real, is for the sake of emphasis inserted between "*the*" and the Superlative adjective :—

He is *the very best* scholar in our class.

137. Latin Comparatives.—There are some comparatives which have been taken direct from the Latin language. All of these end in *or*, and not in *er*; and all are followed by *to* instead of *than*.

His strength	is	<i>superior to</i>	(greater than) mine.
His strength	is	<i>inferior to</i>	(less than) mine.
This event	is	<i>anterior to</i>	} (earlier than) that.
This event	is	<i>prior to</i>	
This event	is	<i>posterior to</i>	
This man	is	<i>senior to</i>	(older than) that.
This man	is	<i>junior to</i>	(younger than) that.

138. Comparatives which have lost their force :—

(i) Latin Comparatives :—*interior*, *exterior*, *ulterior*, *major*, *minor*. These are now never followed by *to*, but are used as if they were adjectives in the Positive degree :—

A fact of *minor* (secondary) importance.

He had an *ulterior* (further) purpose in doing this.

The *interior* (inside) parts of a building.

Some can be used as nouns :—

He is a *minor* (a person under age).

He is a *major* (in the military rank).

The *interior* of the room was well furnished.

(b) English Comparatives :—*former*, *latter*, *elder*, *hinder*, *inner*, *outer*, *upper*, *nether*. These are now never followed by *than* :—

The *former* and the *latter* rain.—*Old Testament*.

The *inner* meaning; the *outer* surface.

The *upper* and the *nether* mill-stones.

The words *elder* and *elders* can also be used as nouns, to denote some person or persons of dignified rank or age; as, "the village elders."

139. Distinctions of Meaning.—The student should

note the differences between (a) *eldest* and *oldest* ; (b) *farther* and *further* ; (c) *later* and *latter* ; (d) *nearest* and *next*.

- (a) { My *eldest* son died at the age of twelve.
He is the *oldest* of my surviving sons.

Here "eldest" means first-born, and is applied only to *persons*. "Oldest" is applied to things as well as to persons, and denotes the greatest age. "That is the *oldest* tree in the grove."

- (b) { Benares is *farther* from Calcutta than Patna is.
The *further* end of the room. A *further* reason exists.

The word "farther" (comparative of "far") denotes a greater distance between two points. The word "further" (comparative of "fore") denotes something additional or something more in advance.

- (c) { This is the *latest* news.
This is the *last* boy in the class.

The words "later" and "latest" denote time ; the words "latter" and "last" denote position.

- (d) { This street is the *nearest* to my house.
This house is *next* to mine.

The word "nearest" denotes space or distance ; ("this street is at a less distance from my house than any other street"). But "next" denotes order or position ; ("no other house stands between this house and mine").

CHAPTER IV.—PRONOUNS.

140. Pronoun defined.—A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun or noun-equivalent (§ 7).

The usefulness of pronouns is best seen by trying to do without them :—

John saw a snake in the garden, *this snake* John thought would hurt *John*, unless *John* killed *the snake* with a stick, *this stick* John had in *John's* hand.

The nouns in italics can all be replaced by pronouns, and the sentence can be much better expressed as follows :—

John saw a snake in the garden, *which* he thought would hurt *him*, unless he killed *it* with a stick *which* he had in *his* hand.

The chief use, then, of Pronouns is to save the repetition of nouns.

- † 141. Three facts follow from the above definition :—
(a) Since a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it must be itself a noun or something equivalent to a noun.
(b) Since a pronoun is intended to stand for some

noun going before, the pronoun should not as a rule be mentioned, until the noun has been mentioned.

(c) Since a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it must be of the same number, gender, and person as the noun it stands for.

142. There are four different kinds of Pronouns :—

(1) **Personal** ; as, *I, thou, he, she*, etc.

(2) **Demonstrative** ; as, *this, that, such, one*, etc.

(3) **Relative** ; as, *which, who, that, as*, etc.

(4) **Interrogative** ; as, *who ? which ? what ?*

§ 1.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

143. The Personal Pronouns are so called, because they stand for the three persons, viz.—

✓ (a) The First, which denotes the person *speaking* ; as, *I, we, myself* :—

I (*the person now speaking*) will do all I can to win a prize at the end of the year.

✓ (b) The Second, which denotes the person *spoken to* ; as, *thou, you, thyself* :—

You (*the person now spoken to*) should leave off this habit of idleness.

✓ (c) The Third, which denotes the person or thing *spoken of* ; as, *he, she, it, himself, herself, itself* :—

He (*the person already mentioned*) did a good day's work with his tutor.

144. Forms of Personal Pronouns.—Personal Pronouns have the same differences of gender, number, and case that nouns have :—

I. The First Person, Masculine or Feminine.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i> . .	I	We
<i>Possessive</i> . .	My, mine	Our, ours
<i>Objective</i> . .	Me	Us

II. *The Second Person, Masculine or Feminine.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i> . . .	Thou	Ye or you
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Thy, thine	Your, yours
<i>Objective</i> . . .	Thee	You

III. *The Third Person, of all Genders.*

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	All Genders.
<i>Nominative</i> .	He	She	It	They
<i>Possessive</i> .	His	Her or hers	Its	Their or theirs
<i>Objective</i> .	Him	Her	It	Them

† 145. Two Forms of Possessive.—Some Personal pronouns have two forms for the Possessive :—

Singular.				Plural.		
First Form .	My	Thy	Her	Ours	Your	Their
Second „ .	Mine	Thine	Hers	Ours	Yours	Theirs

∩ The first is used, when the Possessive is placed *before* its noun. It qualifies the noun like an adjective.

This is *my* book.

That is *their* house.

∩ The second is used—(a) when the pronoun is separated from its noun by a verb coming between; (b) when the noun is understood; (c) when the pronoun is preceded by “of” :—

(a) This book is *mine*. That house is *theirs*.

(b) My horse and *yours* (your horse) are both tired.

(c) That horse *of yours* is tired.

Note 1.—"Hers," "ours," "yours," "theirs" are in fact **Double Possessives**, the "s" being the sign of the Possessive case. In such phrases as "of yours," we have a treble Possessive. See § 67.

Note 2.—In poetry "mine" and "thine" are sometimes placed before their nouns in the same way as "my" and "thy"; but this never happens, unless the noun following begins with a vowel. This is done to separate the sounds of the two vowels:—

Look through *mine eyes* with *thine*.—*Tennyson*.

Who knoweth the power of *thine anger*?—*Old Testament*.

146. Reflexive Personal Pronouns.—These are formed by adding "self" or "own" to a Personal pronoun.

I. The First Person.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. or Obj.</i> . . .	Myself	Ourselves
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	My or mine own	Our own

II. The Second Person.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. or Obj.</i> . . .	Thyself	Yourselves
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Thy or thine own	Your own

III. The Third Person.

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	All Genders.
<i>Nom. or Obj.</i>	Himself	Herself	Itself	Themselves
<i>Possessive</i> .	His own	Her own	Its own	Their own

147. Uses of Reflexive Forms.—The Reflexive forms of Personal pronouns are used for two purposes—(a) to show that the person (or thing) does something to himself (or itself); (b) to make the pronouns more emphatic.

*Examples of (a).**Singular.*

I hid myself.
 I hit my own head.
 Thou lovest thine own work.
 The cat seated itself.

Plural.

We hid ourselves.
 We hit our own heads.
 You love your own work.
 The cats seated themselves.

*Examples of (b).**Singular.*

I myself saw the horse.
 Thou thyself sawest the horse.
 He himself (or she herself) saw it.
 The wall itself fell.

Plural.

We ourselves saw it.
 You yourselves saw it.
 They themselves saw it.
 The walls themselves fell.

Put pronouns in the place of the nouns noted below:—

- (a) I told Rám that the snake seen by Rám in the garden would do Rám no harm, if Rám left the snake alone, to go the snake's own way.
- (b) The girl went into the green field, and there the girl saw the sheep and lambs, as the sheep and lambs played about in the field.
- (c) A man brought round some wild beasts for a show. Among the beasts there was an elephant. The man threw cakes at the elephant, and the elephant caught the cakes in the elephant's trunk.
- (d) A dog was carrying an umbrella for the dog's master. Some boys tried to take away the umbrella from the dog. But the dog was too quick for the boys. The dog ran past the boys at full speed, and carried the umbrella safely out of the boys' reach.
- (e) When the camel is being loaded, the camel kneels down, so that the load may be put on the camel's back. The camel loves men, if men treat the camel well.
- (f) The bees are flying towards the flowers. The bees seek the flowers, and fill the bees' bags with honey.
- (g) Wolves hunt in large packs, and when wolves are pressed by hunger, wolves become very fierce, and will attack men and eat men up greedily.
- (h) A horse cannot defend a horse against wolves; but a horse can run from wolves, and wolves are not always able to catch a horse.

§ 2.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

148. A Demonstrative Pronoun is one that points to some noun going before, and is used instead of it. This noun is called the Antecedent.

149. Forms of Demonstrative Pronouns.—The chief pronouns belonging to the class of Demonstratives are:—*this, that, these, those; one, ones, none; such.*

The student will have observed that these words have

appeared already in the list of Demonstrative *Adjectives*. Where, then, is the difference ?

✕ *When they qualify some noun expressed or understood, they are Adjectives.*

✕ *When they are substitutes for some noun expressed or understood, they are Pronouns.*

(a) He came to my house *one* day.

Here *one* is an adjective (Indefinite Demonstrative) qualifying its noun "day."

(b) Your coat is black ; mine is a white *one*.

Here *one* is a pronoun, which is used as a substitute for the previously-mentioned noun "coat," and is qualified by the adjective "white."

150. He, she, it, they.—The simplest forms of Demonstrative pronouns are *he, she, it, they*.

These have been hitherto called "Personal pronouns," partly because they exemplify the Third person as distinct from the First and Second, and partly because "he" and "she" and sometimes "they" do actually relate to *persons*, and not to things.

Yet it is equally correct to call them Demonstrative pronouns, since they *point to* some noun going before and are *substituted* for it.

(1) My father has gone ; we saw *him* start a short time ago. (Here *him* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for its Antecedent noun "father.")

(2) My mother came yesterday ; we were glad to see *her*. (Here *her* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for its Antecedent noun "mother.")

(3) The sun has risen ; *it* shines brightly. (Here *it* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for the noun "sun.")

(4) The travellers fell asleep as soon as *they* arrived. (Here *they* is a Demonstrative pronoun substituted for the noun "travellers.")

✕ 151. It.—This pronoun has three distinct modes of reference :—

(a) To a *noun* going before. In this sense it is merely a Demonstrative pronoun used in the ordinary way :—

The sun has risen : *it* (=the sun) shines brightly.

(b) To a *clause* going before :—

I have treated him as he deserved ; and he knows *it*. (Here "it" points to the clause "I have treated him as he deserved.")

(c) To a *phrase* or *clause* coming after :—

✕ { *It is sad to hear such bad news.* (Phrase.)
 { It—viz. "to hear such bad news"—is sad.
 { *It is probable that it will rain to-day.* (Clause.)
 { It—viz. "that it will rain to-day"—is probable.

152. *This, that, these, those.*—The uses of these words as *pronouns*, and not as *adjectives*, are as follows:—

(a) When two nouns have been mentioned in a previous sentence or clause, “*this*” has reference to the *latter* and “*that*” to the *former*:—

- (1) Work and play are both necessary to health; *this* (=play) gives us rest, and *that* (=work) gives us energy.
- (2) Dogs are more faithful animals than cats; *these* (=cats) attach themselves to places, and *those* (=dogs) to persons.

Observe that in the first of these sentences “*this*” does not specify *which* or *what* play is meant, and therefore it is not a Demonstrative Adjective. It is simply put as a *substitute* for the noun “play,” and therefore it is a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The same explanation holds good for the other examples.

(b) The word “*that*,” together with its plural form “*those*,” is used as substitute for a single noun previously mentioned:—

- (1) The air of the hills is cooler than *that* (=the air) of the plains.
- (2) The houses of the rich are larger than *those* (=the houses) of the poor.

Observe the word “*that*” in the first example does not qualify the noun “air” by saying *which* air or *what* air, and therefore it is not an Adjective. It stands for “air” in general, and is a *substitute* for the noun “air”; and therefore it is a Pronoun.

(c) The words “*this*” or “*that*” can be used as substitutes for a *clause* or *sentence* previously mentioned:—

- (1) I studied Greek and Latin when I was young, and *that* (=I studied Greek and Latin) at Oxford.

Here by using the pronoun “*that*” as a substitute for the sentence “I studied Greek and Latin,” we not only avoid repeating this sentence a second time, but we give some emphasis to the words “at Oxford.”

- (2) Make the best use of your time at school; *that's* a wise boy.

Here “*that*” = “one who makes the best use of his time at school.” All this repetition is avoided by using the pronoun “*that*” as a substitute for the implied sentence.

- (3) You paid your debts; and *this* (=the payment of your debts) is quite sufficient to prove your honesty.

153. *One, ones.*—When the antecedent noun is in the Singular number, we use “*one*”; but when the antecedent noun is Plural, we use “*ones*.”

- (1) He gained a prize last year ; but he did not gain *one* (=a prize) this term. (*Singular.*)
 (2) There were six lazy boys and four industrious *ones* (=boys) in our class. (*Plural.*)

154. *Such, so.*—"Such" can be substituted for a noun in either number :—

- (1) He is the judge appointed to hear this case, and as *such* (=as the appointed judge) you must not speak to him before the trial. (*Singular.*)
 (2) Kings are constituted *such* (=kings) by law, and should be obeyed. (*Plural.*)

"So" is sometimes used in places where we could also use "such"; but "so" is a Demonstrative *Adverb*, and not a Demonstrative *Pronoun* :—

My business is urgent, and I hope you will treat it *so* (=as urgent).
 Is he an enemy ? He is *so* (=an enemy).

Examples for Practice.

Show whether the words printed in italics are Demonstrative Adjectives or Demonstrative Pronouns :—

This horse is stronger than *that*.

Health is of more value than money ; *this* cannot give such true happiness as *that*.

I prefer a white horse to a black *one*.

You will repent of this *one* day, when it is too late.

You have kept your promise ; *this* was all that I asked for.

The faithfulness of a dog is greater than *that* of a cat.

One Mr. B. helped his friend in need ; *that* was a true friend.

Return to your work, and *that* immediately.

Bring me *that* book, and leave *this* where it is.

The step you have taken is *one* of much risk.

Such a book as yours deserves to be well read.

Prosperous men are much exposed to flattery ; for *such* alone can be made to pay for it.

Prosperous men are not always more happy than unlucky *ones*.

A pale light, like *that* of the rising moon, begins to fringe the horizon.

Will you ride *this* horse or *that* ?

A stranger could not be received twice as *soon* in the same house.

The plan you have chosen does not seem to me to be a wise *one*.

One man says *this*, another *that* ; whom should I believe ?

155. *Indefinite Demonstrative Pronouns.*—Sometimes Demonstrative pronouns are used *indistinctly* ; that is, they are not used as substitutes for some noun expressly mentioned, but for some noun understood or implied.

(a) *They*.—This pronoun is sometimes used for *men in general*, or some person whose name is purposely concealed :—

(1) *They* say (=men in general say) that truth and honesty is the best policy.

(2) *They* told me (=some person or persons, whom I do not wish to name, told me) that you were guilty of theft.

(b) *One*.—This pronoun is often used in the sense of *any person* or *every person* :—

One should take care of *one's* health.

= *A man* (any and every man) should take care of *his* health.

Note 1.—Whenever “one” is the subject to a verb, it must be followed by “one” and not by “he.” Thus we cannot say, “*one* must take care of *his* health.”

Note 2.—“None” (=no one) should be followed by a Singular verb, when it is the Subject of the sentence :—

None but the brave *deserves* the fair.—*Dryden*.

But when several persons or things are spoken of, the verb is made Plural by attraction :—

None of my lost books *were* found.

(c) *It*.—The indefinite use of this pronoun is against all rules of number, person, and gender, and can only be ascribed to idiom.

Who is *it*? *It* is I. Is *it* you? No; *it* is he.

In such phrases as those shown below, “*it*” gives emphasis to the noun or pronoun following :—

It was I who told you that. *It* is the men who work hardest, not the women. *It* was the queen who died yesterday. *It* is little things that chiefly disturb the mind.

Sometimes the noun, for which the word “*it*” is used, can be understood from the context :—

It is raining=rain is raining or falling.

It is blowing hard=the wind is blowing hard.

It is fine to-day=the weather is fine to-day.

It is hot=the air is hot. *It* is cold=the air is cold.

It is still early=the hour is still early.

It is two miles from here=the distance is two miles.

It was autumn=the season of the year was autumn.

Sometimes the word “*it*” is used instead of some Personal pronoun to express endearment or contempt :—

What a pretty little girl *it* is (=she is)! (*Endearment*.)

What an ass *it* is (=that man is)! (*Contempt*.)

§ 3.—RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

✓ 156. A **Relative Pronoun** not only refers to some noun going before (as a **Demonstrative pronoun** does), but it also *joins two sentences together* (which a **Demonstrative pronoun** does not do). It is therefore a pronoun and conjunction combined (see § 18), and might be called a **Conjunctive pronoun**. ✓

This is a good house ; I live in *it*. (*Demonstrative Pronoun.*)

These two sentences can be joined together thus :—

This house, in *which* I live, is a good one. (*Relative Pronoun.*)

✓ 157. **Who, which.**—The **Relative pronoun** is most commonly expressed by *who* or *which*.

Case.	Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.
	Masculine and Feminine.	Neuter.
<i>Nominative</i> . . .	Who	Which
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Whose	Whose or of which
<i>Objective</i> . . .	Whom	Which

The most common form of the **Possessive Neuter** is “of which,” but “whose” is often used in poetry, and sometimes in prose.

Point out the Antecedents to the Relatives shown below :—

We love those persons *who* are kind to us.
 The pen *whose* point was broken has been mended.
 The ground *which* we dig will bear a fine crop.
 That is the man *whom* we saw yesterday.
 Is this a dagger *which* I see before me ?
 We left the house in *which* we had long lived.
 He lost the box of clothes *which* I brought.
 The child *whose* parents are dead is an orphan.

Note.—The **Masculine and Feminine** forms are used for *persons* only. The **Neuter** forms are used for *inanimate things* and for *all kinds of animals* except persons (men and women).

Correct the mistakes noted below :—

The bird *who* sings. The man *which* came. The ape *who* climbs the tree. The horse *who* carried me. The girl *which* sings. The ox *who* draws the plough. The man *which* drives the ox.

Substitute Relatives for Demonstratives in the following :—

This is the house ; Jack built *it*.

This is the man ; I read *his* book.

The boy has come ; *he* lost his hat.

The girl has come ; you were looking for *her*.

These are the trees ; *their* leaves have fallen.

These men have gone ; the box was stolen by *them*.

158. Clause as Antecedent.—The relative “*who*” or “*which*” may have a clause for its antecedent :—

You have paid your debts, which (=the fact that you have paid your debts) is a clear proof of your honesty.

159. Antecedent understood.—The Relative may be so used that the antecedent is included in it or is understood.

(a) *Who* = *he who*, or *she who*, or *they who*.

Who (=he who) steals my purse, steals trash.—*Shakspeare*.

Whom (=those persons whom) the gods love, die young.—*Proverb*.

(b) *What* = *the thing which*, or *the things which*.

I cannot tell you now *what* (=the things which) happened.

The laws are *what* (=the things which) you say they are.

(c) *So*, *ever*, or *soever* added to the Relative pronoun or to Relative adverbs (§ 18, 3) gives the meaning of totality :—

Whosoever (=any and every person who) breaks this law will be punished, *wherever* (in any and every place where) he may live.

Note.—The forms “*what*,” “*whatever*,” and “*whichever*” can also be used with a noun following : in this case the relative is not a *substitute* word, and therefore not a true pronoun, but an adjective.

Be thankful for *what help* or *whatever help* (=any and all help which) you have received.

Take *whichever book* (=that book of all books which) you prefer.

160. That.—The word “*that*” is often used for “*who*,” “*whom*,” or “*which*,” but never for “*whose*” :—

This is the house *that* (=which) Jack built.

The man *that* (=whom) we were looking for has come. —

161. As.—The word “*as*” can be used for a Relative pronoun, provided it is preceded by “*such*,” or “*as*,” or “*the same*.” It may be in the Nominative or the Objective case, but not in the Possessive.

This is not *such* a good book *as* I expected.

As many men *as* came were caught.

Yours is not *the same* book *as* mine (is). —

After “such” and “as” the word “as” is always used. But after “the same” it is not less common to use “that.”

This is *the same* story *that* (=which) I heard ten years ago.

This is *the same* man *that* (=whom) I saw yesterday.

Note.—The use of “that” or “as” after “the same” is guided by the following rules:—(1) When a verb is *expressed* after it, we generally use “that”; (2) When the verb is *understood*, we always use “as”:—

(1) This is the same man *that* came yesterday. (*Verb expressed.*)

(2) This is not the same book *as* mine (is). (*Verb understood.*)

162. But.—The conjunction “but,” *when some Demonstrative pronoun is understood after it*, is used in the sense of “who not” or “which not”:—

There was no one present, *but* saw (=but *he* saw=*who* did not see) the deed.

There is no vice so simple, *but* may (=but *it* may=*which* may not) become serious in time.

The two uses of Who and Which.

163. Restrictive, Continuative.—These words denote two distinct uses of “who” or “which”:—

(a) *Restrict.*—The man *who lived there* died yesterday.

(b) *Contin.*—I have seen my friend, *who recognised* me at once.

In (a) the Relative clause does the work of an *adjective* to the noun “man,” because it *restricts* the application of this noun to that particular man who is said to have “lived there.”

In (b) the Relative clause “who recognised me at once” has no restrictive force on the noun “friend.” It simply *continues* what was said in the previous clause:—“I found my friend, *and he* (=who) recognised me at once.”

Note.—Besides the Restrictive and the Continuative, there are two more senses of “who” and “which,”—one implying a **Cause**, and the other a **Purpose**:—

(c) *Cause.* { Balbus, *who* had been found guilty, was hanged.
— Balbus, *because he* had been found guilty, was hanged.

(d) *Purpose.* { Envoys were sent, *who* should sue for peace.
— Envoys were sent, *that they* might sue for peace.

In (c) and (d) the Relative clause is neither Restrictive nor Continuative, since (c) implies the *cause* of something already done, and (d) the *purpose* for which something is going to be done.

164. Who. that.—“Who” and “which” are the only Relatives that are ever used in the sense of Continuation, Cause, or Purpose. The other, viz. “that,” is invariably used in a Restrictive sense, and much more commonly so than “who” or “which.”

§ 4.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

165. An Interrogative Pronoun is one which asks a question.

166. Forms of Interrogatives.—The Interrogative pronoun has five different forms.

Who spoke? (Nominative to the verb.)

Of *whom* did he speak? (Objective after preposition.)

What did he say? (Objective after verb "say.")

Whose book is that? (Possessive Case.)

Which of these boys will win the prize?

167. Which, what, who.—(a) "Which" is used in a *selective* sense; (b) "who" or "what" is used in a *general* sense:—

(a) *Which* of these books do you prefer?

(b) *What* is the name of that book? *Who* wrote it?

(c) *What* book is that? *Which* book do you like best?

In the examples in (c) "*what*" and "*which*," since they are followed by nouns, are Interrogative adjectives, in the same way as a Demonstrative can be either an adjective or a pronoun (see § 149) according to the context.

168. The student should observe the different meanings of the Interrogatives used in the following sentences:—

(a) *Who* is he?

(b) *What* is he?

(c) *Which* is he?

In (a) the "who" inquires about the name or parentage of some person that has been named.

In (b) the "what" inquires about his calling or social status. "What is he?" A pleader.

In (c) the "which" inquires about some particular person out of a definite group of persons. "The man who stole my purse is among the prisoners here present: which is he? Point him out."

169. Whether.—The word "*whether*," when it signifies one of two persons or things, is now almost obsolete.

Whether of them twain (= *which* of these two men) did the will of his father?—*New Testament*.

170. Exclamatory Pronoun.—The Interrogative "*what*" may be used in an exclamatory sense.

What folly! *What* a foolish man he is!

Parsing Model for Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

The man, that shot four tigers from an elephant's back on his first day of sport, received much praise, which gave him the greatest delight.

The—Definite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun “man.”

Man—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “received.”

That—Relative pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person; agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “man,” nominative case, subject to the verb “shot.”

Shot—Verb.

Four—Numeral adjective, cardinal, qualifying the noun “tigers.”

Tigers—Common noun, masculine gender, plural number, objective case after the verb “shot.”

From—Preposition, having “back” for its object.

An—Indefinite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun “elephant’s.”

Elephant’s—Common noun, common gender, singular number, possessive case, qualifying the noun “back” (§ 114, 4).

Back—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “from.”

On—Preposition, having “day” for its object.

His—Personal pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, possessive case, agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “man.” Qualifies the noun “day” (§ 145).

First—Numeral adjective, ordinal, qualifying the noun “day.”

Day—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “on.”

Of—Preposition, having “sport” for its object.

Sport—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “of.”

Received—Verb.

Much—Adjective of quantity, positive degree, qualifying the noun “praise.”

Praise—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “received.”

Which—Relative pronoun, neuter gender, singular number, third person, having the clause “received much praise” as its antecedent (§ 158), nominative case, subject to the verb “gave.” Used in a Continuative sense (§ 163).

Gave—Verb.

Him—Personal pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, agreeing with its antecedent “man,” objective case after the verb “gave.” (Indirect object, see § 177.)

Greatest—Adjective of quality, superlative degree, qualifying the noun “delight.”

Delight—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “gave.” (Direct object, see § 177.)

✓ CHAPTER V.—VERBS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF VERBS.

171. Verb defined.—A Verb is a word used for saying something about some person or thing (§ 14).

Verbs are subdivided into three main classes:—

I. Transitive. II. Intransitive. III. Auxiliary.

Verbs which are not used in all the moods and tenses are called Defective. They may be Transitive, Intransitive, or Auxiliary.

172. *A verb is Transitive, if the action does not stop with the agent, but passes from the agent to something else.*

(1) The man killed a snake.

(2) I do not know *whether* he has come.

The word or words denoting that person or thing, to which the action of the verb is directed, are called the Object to the verb. The various grammatical forms in which the Object can be expressed have been shown in § 24, and will be shown again in § 175.

173. *A verb is Intransitive, when the action stops with the agent, and does not pass from the agent to anything else.*

Men sleep to preserve life.

Sleep what? This is nonsense. No word or words can be placed as object to such a verb as "sleep."

^p ✕ 174. An Auxiliary verb is one which (a) helps to form a tense or mood of some Principal verb, and (b) *foregoes its own signification as a Principal verb* for that purpose.

I *have* come from home to-day.

Here *have* foregoes its own signification "possession" in order to help the Principal or non-Auxiliary verb "come" to form a Present Perfect tense.

§ 2.—TRANSITIVE VERBS.

175. Forms of the Object.—Most Transitive verbs take a *single* object. The object to a verb may be expressed in various different forms, the chief of which are the following (§ 24):—

(a) Noun:—The man killed a *snake* with his stick.

(b) Pronoun:—The man lifted *me* up out of the water.

- (e) Infinitive :—He desires *to leave* us to-morrow.
 (d) Gerund :—He disliked *sleeping* in the daytime.
 (e) Phrase :—No one knew *how to make a beginning*.
 (f) Clause :—We do not know *who has come*.

176. Position of the Object.—A noun denoting the object to a verb is usually placed *after* the verb to which it belongs. But when the object is a Relative or Interrogative pronoun, or when emphasis is thrown on the noun used as object, the object is placed not after, but before the verb.

Relative.—The man *whom* I saw yesterday has come back to-day.

Interrogative.—*What* did you say? *Whom* were you looking for?

Emphasis.—*Silver and gold* have I none; but *what* I have give I unto thee.—*New Testament*.

177. The Double Object.—Some Transitive verbs take two objects after them, one of which is usually the name of some *thing*, and the other of some *person or other animal*.

The *thing* named is called the **Direct object**; the *person or other animal* named is called the **Indirect**.

Note.—Another way of distinguishing the two objects is by observing that the Indirect object always stands first. If the Indirect is placed after the Direct, it must be preceded by the preposition "*for*" or "*to*":—

He taught Euclid (*Direct*) *to* his sons (*Indirect*).

Point out the Direct and Indirect objects in the following:—

Bring me that book. I forgave him his faults. We allowed him two rupees. We envy him his good luck. He taught me English. He refused me the loan of a book. I have asked you a question. You answered me nothing. They gave the boy a prize. They sent the boy a book. They lent me ten rupees. They fined him ten rupees. He owed me twelve rupees. The man told me the story. He showed me the way. He left them all his wealth. They played him a trick. He promised me his help. He saved me much grief. They sold him two horses. He did me a great kindness. He made me a handsome present. This man bears me a grudge. This affair caused him much trouble, and raised him up enemies.

178. Factitive Verbs.—Those Transitive verbs which take *one* object only, but still require some word or words to make the predication *complete*, are called **Factitive** (§ 25).

The additional word or words by which the predication is made complete are called the **Complement**.

The Complement may be in seven different forms:—
a noun, an adjective, a participle, a preposition with its object, an Infinitive verb, an adverb, or a noun-clause:—

	<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Complement.</i>
<i>Noun</i> :—	They	made	him	king.
<i>Adjective</i> :—	The judge	set	the prisoner	free.
<i>Participle</i> :—	They	found	her	still weeping.
<i>Prep. with</i> }	This plot	filled	us all	with terror.
<i>Object</i> :				
<i>Infinitive</i> :—	I	like	a rascal	to be punished.
<i>Adverb</i> :—	They	found	the man	asleep.
<i>Clause</i> :—	We	have made	him	what he is.

Note.—The necessity of adding a Complement to certain verbs, in order to make the predication complete, can be seen at once from the example, "I like a rascal to be punished." If you merely say, "I like a rascal," you are saying the opposite to what you intended: for you do not like a rascal, but a rascal *to be punished*, or the *punishment* of a rascal.

— §179. Omission of the Relative as Object.—This occurs in two kinds of sentences—(a) When the verb is Transitive; (b) when the verb is Intransitive, but followed by a preposition.

This never occurs, however, when the Relative is used in a Continuative sense (see § 163).

- (a) The books I bought cost three rupees.
The house we occupied has fallen down.
The man I engaged has now come.
He was not careful about the air he breathed.
- (b) The house we lived in has fallen down.
The chairs we sat on are ten in number.
We have at last got the thing we fought for.
I have brought the book you spoke about.

Supply the Relative pronoun that is understood in each of the above sentences.

— §180. Transitive Verbs used Intransitively.—There are two ways in which Transitives can become Intransitive:—

(a) When the verb is used in such a general sense that no object or objects are thought of in using it:—

Men *eat* to preserve life.

A new-born child *sees*, but a kitten is born blind.

(b) When the Reflexive pronoun is omitted:—

He *drew* (himself) near me.

Move (yourself) forward.

§ 3.—INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

✓ 181. **Intransitive Verbs of Complete Predication.**—This is the name given to any Intransitive verb, which makes a complete sense by itself, and does not require any word or words to be added to it for this purpose:—

✓ Rivers *flow*. Winds *blow*. Horses *run*, or *walk*, or *graze*, or *lie down*. Birds *fly*. All animals *sleep*. All animals *die*.

✓ 182. **Intransitive Verbs of Incomplete Predication.**—This is the name given to those Intransitive verbs, which do not make a complete sense by themselves, but require a **Complement** to supply what the verb left unsaid (§ 27).

The Complement to Intransitive verbs may be in the same kinds of form as the Complement to Factitive verbs:—

	Subject.	Verb.	Complement.
Noun	A horse	is	a four-legged animal.
	That beggar	turned out	a thief.
Adjective	The man	has fallen	sick.
	The dog	went	mad.
Participle	The man	appears	pleased.
	The stag	continued	running and jumping.
Prep. with	Your coat	is	of many colours.
Object	That book	proved	of no use.
Infinitive	The flower	seems	to be fading.
	You	appear	to have forgotten me.
Adverb	The man	has fallen	asleep.
Clause	The results	are	what we expected.

Note 1. When the Complement comes after an Intransitive verb, it is called a **Subjective Complement**, because it relates to the Subject.

But when it comes after a Factitive verb in the *Active* voice, it is called an **Objective Complement**, because it relates to the Object.

Note 2.—The Complement usually stands *after* its verb, but for the sake of emphasis it may be placed *before* it:—

Strait is the gate, and *narrow* is the way that leadeth unto life, and *few* there be that find it.—*New Testament*.

✓ 183. **The Cognate Object.**—An Intransitive verb, though it is never followed by a noun denoting an *outside* or foreign object, may sometimes be followed by a noun *already implied more or less in the verb itself*.

Thus we can say “he has lived a *sad life*,” where the noun *life* is implied already in the verb “lived,” and is in fact part of its meaning. Such objects are called **cognate** or “kindred,” because the noun denoting them is of kindred meaning to that of the verb itself.

There are five different forms of Cognate object:—

(a) *Cognate noun formed directly from the verb.*

He laughed a hearty *laugh*.

He died a sad *death*.

He lived a long *life*.

He fought a good *fight*.

He slept a sound *sleep*.

He prayed an earnest *prayer*.

He sighed a deep *sigh*.

He sang a fine *song*.

(b) *Cognate noun of similar meaning.*

He went a long *way*.

He fought a good *battle*.

He struck a deadly *blow*.

He ran his own *course*.

It blows a brisk *gale*.

The bells ring a merry *peal*.

(c) *A noun descriptive of the Cognate noun understood.*

They shouted *applause* = they shouted a *shout* of applause.

He served his *apprenticeship* = he served his *service* as an apprentice.

He ran a great *risk* = he ran a *course* of great risk.

He played the *fool* = he played the *part* of a fool.

(d) *An adjective qualifying the Cognate noun understood.*

He shouted his loudest (shout). He ran his fastest (run or pace).

He fought his best (fight). She sang her sweetest (song). He

breathed his last (breath). He tried his hardest (trial or attempt).

(e) *Cognate noun expressed by "it."*

We must fight *it* (=the fight) out to the end.

We have no horse; so we must foot *it* (that is, go the distance on foot).

Lord Angelo dukes *it* (=acts the part of a duke) well.—*Shakspeare*.

184. The Reflexive or Personal Object.—In older English, Intransitive verbs were often followed by a Personal pronoun, either reflexive or used reflexively.

A few of such verbs have survived to the present day:—

He *threw* home. Fare *thee* well. Haste *thee* away. They sat *them* down. He over-ate *himself*. To over-sleep *oneself*. Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps *itself*.—*Shakspeare*.

185. Intransitive Verbs in a causal sense.—If an Intransitive verb is used in the sense of causing a thing to be done, it becomes Transitive. Of these there are only a few examples in English:—

Intransitive.

The horse trotted out.

Water boils.

The prisoners walk out.

A thorn ran into his hand.

Causal.

They trotted out the horse (= caused it to trot out).

He boils the water (=causes it to boil).

He walks out the prisoners (= causes them to walk out).

He ran a thorn (=caused it to run) into his hand.

Intransitive.

The kite flew into the air.
 The soldiers march out.
 Wheat grows in the field.
 The boat floated.
 He talks hoarsely.

Causal.

He flew the kite (=caused it to fly).
 He marches out the soldiers.
 He grows wheat in the field.
 He floated the boat.
 He talks himself hoarse; (= he makes himself hoarse by talking).

186. There are a few Intransitive verbs, in which the causal sense is indicated by *some change of vowel*.

Intransitive.

The tree *falls*.
 The sun will *rise* at six.
 The cow *lies* on the grass.
 We must not *sit* here.
 He did not *fare* well.
 The enemy *quails*.
 The fish did not *bite* to-day.

Transitive or Causal.

He *fells* the tree with an axe.
 I cannot *raise* or *rouse* this boy.
 The man *lays* down his coat.
 He *set* the books in order.
 He will *ferry* me over.
 He *quells* the enemy.
 He did not *bait* them properly.

In the same way *drench*=causes to drink, *soak*=causes to suck.

187. Prepositional Verbs.—An Intransitive verb can be made Transitive by having a preposition added to it.

Such verbs may be considered to be real Transitives, provided they can be used in the Passive voice.

We *act on* this rule. (*Active.*)

This rule is *acted on* by us. (*Passive.*)

Note 1.—When the verb is in the Passive voice, the *on* cannot be parsed as a preposition, since there is no object to it. It must therefore be parsed as part of the verb itself.

Note 2.—In prepositional verbs, the preposition is almost always placed after the verb; but "*with*" and "*over*" are often placed before it:—

He *withstood* (stood against, endured) the attack.

He was *overcome* (defeated) by the enemy.

The banks were *overflowed* (inundated) with water.

The field is *overgrown* (covered) with weeds.

The boundary has been *overstepped* (transgressed).

All these verbs, when they are used apart from the preposition, are Intransitive. It is the *preposition which makes them Transitive*.

188. Summary.—There are thus two ways in which an Intransitive verb can become Transitive—(1) when it is used in a causal sense (§ 185); (2) when it is connected with a preposition so closely that the verb, compounded with the preposition, can be made Passive (§ 187).

Similarly, there are two kinds of objects which can come after an Intransitive verb, although the verb itself continues to be Intransitive (1) the Cognate object (§ 183); (2) the Reflexive or Personal object (§ 184).

§ 4.—ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICES.

189. A *Transitive* verb has two voices, the Active and the Passive.

190. *Active voice*.—Here the person or thing denoted by the Subject is said to *do something* to something else :—

Rám *kills* a snake. (Here the person denoted by the Subject, namely Rám, *docs something* to a snake.)

Passive voice.—Here the person or thing is said to *suffer something* from something else :—

A snake *is killed* by Rám. (Here the thing denoted by the Subject, namely a snake, *suffers something* from Rám.)

191. An *Intransitive* verb is not used in the Passive voice, unless it takes a Cognate object in the Active :—

I have fought the good fight. (*Active.*)

The good fight has been fought by me. (*Passive.*)

192. When a sentence is changed from the Active form to the Passive, the object to the Active verb becomes the subject to the Passive verb.

Object to Active Verb.

Brutes cannot make *tools*.

Brutes do not possess *hands*.

Subject to Passive Verb.

Tools cannot be made by brutes.

Hands are not possessed by brutes.

193. *Retained Object*.—Verbs which take *two* objects after them in the Active voice (§ 177) can still retain *one* in the Passive. This object may be either—

(a) The Indirect object of the Active verb ; as—

Active Verb.

I forgave *him* his fault.

We allowed *him* two rupees.

Passive Verb.

The fault was forgiven *him* by me.

Two rupees were allowed *him* by us.

or (b) the Direct object of the Active verb ; as—

Active Verb.

I forgave him his *fault*.

We allowed him *two rupees*.

Passive Verb.

He was forgiven *his fault* by me.

He was allowed *two rupees* by us.

Note.—It has now been shown that there are five different kinds of objects which can be used with verbs :—

(1) *Direct* (with Trans. verbs).—He taught *Euclid* (§ 172).

(2) *Indirect* (with Trans. verbs).—He taught *his sons* *Euclid* (§ 177).

(3) *Retained* (with Pass. verbs).—His sons were taught *Euclid* (§ 193).

(4) *Cognate* (with Intrans. verbs).—The fever must run its *course* (§ 183).

(5) *Reflexive* (with Intrans. verbs).—He sat *himself* down (§ 184).

✓ 194. Whenever a Factitive verb is changed from the Active voice to the Passive, the Objective Complement becomes a Subjective one.

Active voice : Complement to
Object:

Passive voice : Complement to
Subject.

{ They proclaimed him *king*.
They did not crown him *king*.

He was proclaimed *king* by them.
He was not crowned *king* by them.

✓ 195. Verbs Active in form, but Passive in sense.

Transitive verbs are sometimes used in a Passive sense without being put into the Passive voice :—

✓(a) Verbs with a Complement :—

{ The stone *feels* rough (is rough when it is felt).

{ Honey *tastes* sweet (is sweet when it is tasted).

{ The milk *smells* sour (is sour when it is smelt).

Your blame *counts* for nothing (is worth nothing when it is counted).

Your composition *reads* well (sounds well when it is read).

The house *does* not *let* (is not taken when it is meant to be let).

The horse *does* not *sell* (is not taken when it is meant to be sold).

That cloth will *wear* thin (will become thin when it is worn).

✓(b) Verbs without a Complement :—

{ The house *is building* (=is in a state of being built).

{ The trumpets *are sounding* (=are being sounded).

{ The cannons *are firing* (=are being fired).

The drums *are beating* (=are being beaten).

The house *is finishing* (=is being finished).

The book *is printing* (=is being printed).

The cows *are milking* (=are being milked).

Notc.—What looks like a Present Participle in this construction was originally a verbal noun or gerund preceded by *in* or *on* :—

This house was three years *in building*.

§ 5.—MOOD, TENSE, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

✓ 196. Mood defined.—A Mood denotes the *mode* or *manner* in which a statement is made by the verb :—

✓ 197. Names of the Moods.—There are four Moods, three Finite and one Infinitive :—

✓(a) Three Finite moods :—

✓ 1. Indicative. ✓ 2. Imperative. ✓ 3. Subjunctive.

✓(b) The Infinitive mood.

✓ 198. Characters of the Moods.—In the Indicative mood we *assert* or *indicate* an action as a *fact* : as, “he comes,” “he came,” “he will come.”

✓ In the Imperative mood we *command* or *advise* an action; as, "come thou," "come you," or "come."

✓ In the Subjunctive mood we *suppose* an action; as, "if he come or should come."

✓ In the Infinitive mood we neither assert, nor command, nor suppose, but simply *name* an action; as, "to come."

✓ 199. Number and Person.—The number and person of a Finite verb depend upon the nature of its Subject.

✓ <i>Number</i>	{	If the subject is Singular, the verb must be Singular; as, Rain <i>is</i> falling.
		If the subject is Plural, the verb must be Plural; as, Raindrops <i>are</i> falling.
✓ <i>Person</i>	{	If the subject is in the First person, the verb must be in the First person; as, I love. We come.
		If the subject is in the Second person, the verb must be in the Second person; as, Thou lovest. You come.
		If the subject is in the Third person, the verb must be in the Third person; as, He loves. The teacher <i>has</i> come.

✓ Hence arises the following rule:—*A Finite verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject.*

Note.—All nouns and noun-equivalents take verbs in the Third person. All pronouns excepting the First Personal and the Second Personal take verbs in the Third person.

Point out the number and person of every verb in the following sentences:—

The cow *is* a quiet and useful animal. Oxen *draw* the plough. I *see* four men coming. They *see* the sun rising. We *see* the hills in the distance. Thou *art* the wisest man in the room. The horse *carries* its rider. Four men *carry* the palanquin. That the horse is lame *is seen* by all of us. How to do this *was* not understood.

✓ 200. Tense defined.—Tense shows (a) the time of an action, (b) its degree of completeness. The verb may tell you:—

✓ (1) That an action *is done* at the Present time; as, "he sees a star."

✓ (2) That an action *was done* in the Past time; as, "he saw a star."

✓ (3) That an action *will be done* in the Future time; as, "he will see a star."

A verb, then, has three main times or tenses, viz. the Present, the Past, and the Future.

201. To each tense there are four different forms:—

✓ I. Indefinite ; which denotes Present, Past, or Future time in its simplest form ; as, “I love,” “I loved,” “I shall love.”

✓ II. Continuous ; which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is still *continuing* or not yet completed ; as, “I am loving,” “I was loving,” “I shall be loving.”

Note.—This tense is sometimes called the **Imperfect**, because it denotes an event which is imperfect or not completed.

✓ III. Perfect ; which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is in a completed or *perfect* state ; as, “I have loved,” “I had loved,” “I shall have loved.”

✓ IV. Perfect Continuous ; which combines the meanings of the two preceding forms ; as, “I have been loving,” “I had been loving,” “I shall have been loving.”

§ 6.—INDICATIVE MOOD.

Forms of the Tenses, Indicative Mood.

202. The three Tenses and twelve forms of a verb in the Indicative Mood are shown in the following table:—

I.—Active Voice.

Form.	Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Future Tense.
1. Indefinite	I love	I loved	I shall love
2. Continuous	I am loving	I was loving	I shall be loving
3. Perfect	I have loved	I had loved	I shall have loved
4. Perfect Continuous	I have been loving	I had been loving	I shall have been loving

II.—Passive Voice.

Form.	Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Future Tense.
1. Indefinite	I am loved	I was loved	I shall be loved
2. Continuous	I am being loved	I was being loved	(Wanting)
3. Perfect	I have been loved	I had been loved	I shall have been loved
4. Perfect Continuous	(Wanting)	(Wanting)	(Wanting)

203. The Present, Past, and Future tenses (Indefinite) are declined in the following form, for all numbers and persons:—

I.—*Active Voice.**Present Tense.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I love	We love
2nd „	Thou lovest	Ye or you love
3rd „	He loves or loveth	They love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I loved	We loved
2nd „	Thou lovedst	Ye or you loved
3rd „	He loved	They loved

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I shall love	We shall love
2nd „	Thou wilt love	Ye or you will love
3rd „	He will love	They will love

N.B.—(1) The Singular forms of the Second person (thou lovest, thou lovedst, thou wilt love) are now seldom used except in poetry. They have been superseded by the Plural forms (you love, you loved, and you will love), which, though Plural in fact, are used in a Singular sense as well as in a Plural sense; as, "Have you come, my son?" "Have you," being addressed to "son," is used in a Singular sense, and may be parsed as Singular.

(2) The form "he loveth" is now seldom used except in poetry.

II.—*Passive Voice.**Present Tense.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I am loved	We are loved
2nd „	Thou art loved	Ye or you are loved
3rd „	He is loved	They are loved

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I was loved	We were loved
2nd „	Thou wast loved	Ye or you were loved
3rd „	He was loved	They were loved

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I shall be loved	We shall be loved
2nd „	Thou wilt be loved	Ye or you will be loved
3rd „	He will be loved	They will be loved

✓ 204. Do and Did.—The Present Indefinite in the Active voice can also be formed by "do," and the Past by "did."

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I do love	We do love
2nd ,,	Thou dost love	Ye or you do love
3rd ,,	He does love	They do love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I did love	We did love
2nd ,,	Thou didst love	Ye or you did love
3rd ,,	He did love	They did love

This form is used for three different purposes :—

✓ (a) For the sake of emphasis ; as, “*I do love*,” “*I did love*.”

✓ (b) For the sake of bringing in the word “not” ; as, “*I do not love*” (which is better than saying “*I love not*”), “*I did not love*” (which is better than saying “*I loved not*”).

✓ (c) For the sake of asking a question ; as, “*Does he love?*” “*Why did he love?*” “*Did he not love?*”

✓ 205. Whenever *do* or *did* is used for asking a question, the noun or pronoun used as subject to the verb is placed after the *do* or *did*, and not before it ; as—

Do I love? Did he not love? (*Question.*)

✓ But whenever *do* or *did* is used for the sake of emphasis or with “not,” the noun or pronoun stands before the verb, and not after it ; as—

I do not love. (*Negative.*) *I do love.* (*Emphasis.*)

Correct the following :—

Loved he not? Came he? He not saw this book. He reads not his book with care. They not slept long last night. They broke not the slate, but he broke it. You not read your book well. This letter came for me to-day or yesterday? It came not to-day, but yesterday. You not yet finished reading the letter?

✓ 206. *Has come*, *is come*.—These two forms have not the same meaning, and do not belong to the same tense.

✓ (a) In the form “*I have come*,” the *time of the action* is prominent. Since this is the Present Perfect tense, it denotes *present time*. By what time was the coming completed? By the present time. The word “*come*” is here *part of a tense*.

✓ (b) In the form “*I am come*,” the *state of the agent* is

prominent, and not the time of the action. In what state is the agent? The state of having come. In the form "I am come" the word "come" is *not* part of a tense, but is the *Past Participle* used as Subjective Complement to the verb "am."

"The flower *is* faded." In what state is the flower? Faded. Nothing is said about *the time of the fading*.

"The flower *has* faded." By what time was the fading of the flower completed? By the present time.¹

✓ 207. Shall and will.—These (as the student has learnt already) are the two Auxiliary verbs by means of which the Future tense is formed in both voices.

One of the puzzles in English is to know when to use "*shall*" and when to use "*will*."

With a view to clearing up this matter it should be understood that there are *three* senses in which the future tense can be used:—

- ✓ (a) To express *merely future time*, and nothing more.
- ✓ (b) To combine future time with an implied *command*.
- (c) To combine future time with an implied *intention*.

(a) *Merely future time.*

✓ When nothing but future time is intended—*mere futurity*, without any idea of command or intention being mixed up with it—*shall* must be used for the *First* person, and *will* for the *Second* and *Third* persons, as below:—

Singular.

Plural.

✓ 1st Person	I <i>shall</i> go	We <i>shall</i> go
2nd ,,	Thou <i>will</i> go	You <i>will</i> go
3rd ,,	He <i>will</i> go	They <i>will</i> go

(b) *An Implied Command, Promise, or Threat.*

✓ Whenever we desire to express, not merely future time, but some *command*, or *promise*, or *threat* in addition, *shall* is put for *will* in the *Second* and *Third* persons. *Shall* is here a Principal verb.

- { You *shall* be hanged (by some one's command).
- { You *shall* receive your prize to-morrow (promise).
- { If you do this, you *shall* be hanged (threat).

(c) *An Implied Intention.*

✓ When the speaker wishes to express some intention of his own, then *will* is put for *shall* in the *First* person:—

— I *will* call on you to-day, and I *shall* then say good-bye.

Here the first verb denotes the *intention* of calling, while the other denotes *merely future time*. "*Will*" is here a Principal verb.

¹ It is therefore incorrect to say that "*has come*" and "*is come*" are equivalent, and that the use of "*is*" and "*was*" for "*has*" and "*had*" is limited to verbs of motion.

What is denoted by the Tenses of the Indicative Mood.

+ §208. The Present Indefinite.—The special use of this tense is to express what is true *at all times* alike—past, present, or future :—

- ✓ The sun *shines* by day, and the moon by night.
- Things equal to the same thing *are* equal to one another.
- Sixteen annas *make* one rupee.
- Europe *is* the smallest of the continents.
- Death *is* the common lot of all men.

This tense might be called the Tense of Science, since all universal truths are expressed by it.

§209. The same tense is also used for expressing whatever is *permanent* or *habitual* in the lives and characters of men :—

- ✓ He *is* a fine singer. He *works* hard.
- He *loves* amusement more than work.
- He *keeps* his promises. He *has* good health.

+ §210. The Present Indefinite can relate to some *present* event, provided that present time (a) is expressed by some special adverb or phrase, or (b) is implied by the context :—

- ✓ (a) { I *am now* in a hurry to start. ✓
- { I *cannot start at present*.
- { The wind *is very cold to-day*.
- ✓ (b) { I *understand* what you say. ✓
- { I *see no use in* doing what you *advise*.
- { The door *is open* ; I did not shut it.

+ §211. The Present Indefinite can relate to some *future* event, provided that future time (a) is expressed by some special adverb or phrase, or (b) is implied by the context :—

- (a) He *comes* (=will come) here *in a few days' time*.
- (b) When *do you start* (=will you start) for Calcutta ?

+ §212. The Present Indefinite can relate to some *past* event, when the narrator, for the sake of vivacity, describes some past event as if it were now passing before his eyes :—

- ✓ Baber *now leads* (=then led) his men through the Khyber Pass; and *enters* (=entered) the plains of India.

This is called the “*historic present*,” because it describes an historical or past event as if it were present.

+ 213. The Past Indefinite.—The special use of this tense is to state something *that was true once*, but is now past and gone. *It excludes absolutely all reference to present time.*

Baber *founded* the Mogul Empire in India.

Vasco de Gama *was* the first man from Europe who *rounded* the Cape of Good Hope.

As the Present Indefinite might be called the Tense of Science, so the Past Indefinite might be called the Tense of History.

+ 214. The Present Perfect.—The peculiar purport of this tense is that it invariably connects a *completed* event in some sense or other with *the present time*,

I *have lived* twenty years in Lucknow (that is, *I am living there still*, and I began to live there twenty years ago).

The lamp *has gone out* (that is, it has just gone out, and we are now left in darkness).

+ 215. The Present Perfect can never be used in reference to a past event, except when the state of things arising out of that event is *still present*.

The British Empire *has succeeded* to the Mogul.

The series of events by which the British Empire superseded the Mogul took place more than a century ago. The events are therefore long past. Yet it is quite correct to use the Present Perfect tense "*has succeeded*," because the state of things arising out of these past events is *still present*: the British Empire *still exists*, and pertains to *present time* no less than to past time.

But such a sentence as the following is wrong:—

Baber *has founded* the Mogul Empire.

This is wrong, because the state of things arising out of the foundation of the empire by Baber has entirely passed away.

+ 216. The Present Perfect, since it denotes *present time*, cannot be qualified by any adverb or phrase denoting *past time*. This would be a contradiction in terms.

Incorrect.

Correct.

The rain *has ceased* yesterday.
I *have finished* my letter last evening.

The rain *ceased* yesterday.
I *finished* my letter last evening.

The parrot *has died* of cold last night.

The parrot *died* of cold last night.

But such sentences as the following are correct, because the adverb or phrase used in each of them is of such a kind as to *connect past time with the present*; hence no contradiction occurs.

The English empire *has been flourishing* for the past 150 years (that is, it began to flourish 150 years ago and is still flourishing).

Fever *has raged* in the town since Monday last (that is, fever began to rage on Monday last, and is raging still).

217. The Past Perfect (also called the Pluperfect).—*This is used whenever we wish to say that some action had been completed, before another was commenced.*

The verb expressing the *previous* action is put into the Past Perfect or Pluperfect tense. The verb expressing the *subsequent* action is put into the Past Indefinite.

(a) *Previous Action.*

Past Perfect.

✓ He *had been* ill two days,
He *had seen* many foreign cities,

Subsequent Action.

Past Indefinite.

when the doctor *was sent* for.
before he *returned* home.

(b) *Subsequent Action.*

Past Indefinite.

✓ The boat *was sunk* by a hurricane,
The sheep *fled* in great haste;

Previous Action.

Past Perfect.

which *had* suddenly sprung up.
for a wolf *had entered* the fold.

The Past Perfect ought never to be used at all *except to show the priority of one past event to another.*

Yet Indian students and clerks are apt to use the Past Perfect when no priority of any kind is implied, and when they ought to use the Past Indefinite. Here is a specimen of an official letter :—

“I beg to inform you that the trustees to the _____ endowment, at the meeting convened on 19th July 1891, *had* unanimously resolved to reserve the option of appointing or dismissing the men employed.”

Here the event referred to should have been expressed in the *Past Indefinite*. The use of the Past Perfect is wrong in this place, because there is no priority of one event to another.

218. The Future Perfect.—This tense is used in two different senses :—(a) To denote the completion of some event in *future* time ; (b) to denote the completion of some event in *past* time.¹

✓ (a) He *will have* reached home before the rain sets in. (The reaching of home will be completed before the setting in of rain commences.)

✓ (b) You *will have* heard (must have heard in some past time) this news already ; so I need not repeat it.

¹ This use of the Future Perfect tense to denote the completion of some event in *past* time has been overlooked in previous grammars. At first sight it seems like a contradiction to make a *future* tense have reference to *past* time. But the future here implies an inference regarding something which is believed to have passed rather than past time itself. “You will have heard” = I infer or believe that you have heard.

§ 7.—IMPERATIVE MOOD.

219. The Imperative mood is used only in the Present tense, and only in the Second person :—

Singular.

Plural.

—Speak, or speak thou.

Speak, or speak you, or speak ye.

220. To express the *First* and *Third* persons of the Imperative mood, we use the verb *let*, which is itself the Second person (Singular or Plural) of the Imperative mood of the verb “to let”; as—

Singular.

Plural.

—1st Person

Let me speak

Let us speak

—3rd “

Let him speak

Let them speak

N.B.—Here *speak* is in the Infinitive mood with the “to” left out.

In older English, however, and sometimes even to this day in poetry, but very rarely in prose, the First and Third persons of the Subjunctive are used in an Imperative sense; as—

Every soldier *kill* (=is ordered to kill) his prisoners.—*Shakespeare*.

Thither our path *lies*; *wind we* (=let us wind) up the height.—

R. Browning.

The Third person of the Subjunctive mood occurs in the common phrase *suffice it*, which means “let it suffice”:—

Suffice it to say that all the prisoners were acquitted.

221. The chief uses of the Imperative mood are to express (a) *command*, (b) *precept*, or (c) *entreaty*:—

(a) *Command*:—

—*Speak*,—or I fire.

Awake, arise, or be for ever fallen.—*Milton.*

(b) *Precept or Invitation*:—

—*Go* to the ant, thou sluggard; *consider* her ways and *be* wise.—*Old Testament.*

(c) *Entreaty or Prayer*:—

—*Give* us this day our daily bread, and *forgive* us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us.—*Lord's Prayer.*

222. When the verb is negative, that is, prohibitive, the Imperative is now formed by the Auxiliary “do.”

Older Form.

Present Form.

Fear not.

Do not fear.

Taste not that food.

Do not taste that food.

Sometimes, even when the verb is affirmative, the Imperative is formed by “do,” in order to give more emphasis to an entreaty. This, however, occurs only in colloquial English.

Do leave off making that noise.

Do help me to lift this box.

223. The Imperative mood is sometimes used to express supposition :—

Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves
(=If you take care of the pence, the pounds will, etc.).

Resist the devil, and he will flee from you (=If you resist the devil, he will flee, etc.).

224. Sometimes, but very rarely, the Imperative mood is used absolutely ; see § 28 (c).

A large number of men, *say* a hundred, are working on the railroad.
Behold, this dreamer cometh.—*Old Testament*.

§ 8.—THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

225. The Subjunctive mood is so called, because the clause containing the verb in this mood is generally *subjoined* to some other sentence, and seldom stands alone.

226. The Present, Past, and Future tenses (Indefinite) are declined as follows in the Active voice :—

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I love	If we love
— 2nd „	If thou love (<i>rare</i>)	If you love
3rd „	If he love (<i>rare</i>)	If they love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I loved	If we loved
— 2nd „	If thou lovedst	If you loved
3rd „	If he loved	If they love

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
✓ 1st Person	If I should love	If we should love
2nd „	If thou shouldst love	If ye or you should love
3rd „	If he should love	If they should love

Note.—We call the second of these the Past tense, because it is past in *form*. But in the Subjunctive mood this past form has reference not to past, but to present or future contingencies, as is shown in § 230 (3).

227. The verb “*to be*” has retained the Subjunctive forms more completely than any other verb :—

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I be	If we be
2nd „	If thou be	If ye or you be
3rd „	If he be	If they be

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I were	If we were
2nd „	If thou wert	If ye or you were
3rd „	If he were	If they were

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I should be	If we should be
2nd „	If thou shouldst be	If ye or you should be
3rd „	If he should be	If they should be

Note.—What has been said about the Past tense in Note to § 186 applies also to “were.” The form is *past*, but the reference is either Present or Future. See § 230 (3).

✓ 228. The forms for the Continuous and Perfect tenses in the Active voice are shown below:—

	<i>Continuous.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Present	If I be loving	If I have loved
Past	If I were loving	If I had loved
Future	If I should be loving	If I should have loved

✓ 229. In the Passive voice the only forms of the Subjunctive mood which are in ordinary use are the Indefinite and the Perfect:—

	<i>Indefinite.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Present	If I be loved	If I have been loved
Past	If I were loved	If I had been loved
Future	If I should be loved	If I should have been loved

The Uses of the Subjunctive Mood.

230. The Indicative mood expresses a fact and sometimes a condition; the Imperative expresses an order; the Subjunctive a purpose, a wish, a condition, or a doubt.

(1) A Purpose.

✕ In this case the verb in the Subjunctive mood is preceded by the conjunction *that* or *lest* (*lest* = *that not*). The Auxiliary verbs “*may*” and “*might*” are used after “*that*,” and “*should*” after “*lest*.”

	<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive; Purpose.</i>
Present	I give you a prize, .	that you may work well again.
or	I shall keep your book, .	lest you should lose it.
Future	I gave you a prize, .	that you may not lose it.
	I kept your book, .	that you might work well again.
Past		lest you should lose it.
		that you might not lose it.

(2) *A Wish.*

Thy kingdom *come* = *may* thy kingdom *come*.
 I wish that he *were* as clever as his sister.
 God *save* the queen. Long *live* the king.
 Far *be* it from me to say anything false.

(3) *Condition and its Consequence.*

A Present or Future condition can be expressed in four different ways, all equivalent. The verb in the *consequence* has *shall* or *should* in the first person, and *will* or *would* in the second and third.

*First Sentence : Condition.**Second Sentence : Consequence.*

Present { If I *meet* him,
 or { If I *met* him,
 Future { If I *should meet* him,
 { If I *were to meet* him, }
 Past { If he *had met* me,
 { If I *had been* in his place,

I *shall* know him at once.

I *should* know him at once.

he *would* have known me.

I *should* have paid the rupee.

The *if*, when followed by an Auxiliary, can be left out. In this case the *should*, *had*, or *were* must be placed before its subject :—

Present { *Should* he *meet* me,
 or { *Were* I in his place,
 Future { *Had* he *met* me,
 Past { *Had* I *been* in his place,

he *would* know me at once.

I *should* pay the rupee.

he *would* have known me.

I *should* have paid the rupee.

Sometimes the Conditional sentence is left out or understood, and only the Consequent sentence is expressed :—

He *would* never agree to that ("if you asked him," understood).

(4) *A Doubt or Supposition.*

A verb in the Subjunctive mood, preceded by some conjunction, implies some *doubt* or *supposition*; the Subjunctive mood never expresses a *fact*.

✗ Murder, *though* it *have* no tongue, will speak.
 ✗ If he *but speak*, I will shoot him.
Whether he *allow* me or not, I will go to him.
Provided he *confess* his fault, I will pardon him.
Unless he *consent*, we can do nothing.

Note.—There is, however, a growing tendency in English to substitute the Indicative mood for the Subjunctive, even when the sentence is intended to convey a doubt or supposition.

§ 9.—INFINITIVE MOOD.

✓ 231. The Infinitive mood is not combined with any Subject, and therefore it has *no number* and *no person*.

✓ This mood names the action, without naming the doer.

The student will remember that verbs in the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative moods are called *Finite*, because they are limited by the number and person of their subject (§ 16 and § 199).

What we have now to consider are those parts of a verb which are not Finite, viz. the Infinitive, the Participle, and the Gerund (§ 17).

232. The forms of the Infinitive mood are four in number, two relating to Present time, and two to Past:—

	Form.	Active Voice.	Passive Voice.
✓ Present	<i>Indefinite</i>	To send	To be sent
	<i>Continuous</i>	To be sending	(<i>Wanting</i>)
Past	<i>Perfect</i>	To have sent	To have been sent
	<i>Perf. Contin.</i>	To have been sending	(<i>Wanting</i>)

There is no Future form of the Infinitive mood.

Future time can be expressed in the Infinitive only by some phrase; as, "to be about to send"; "to be on the point of sending"; "to be going to send."

✓ 233. Omission of "to." The word "to" is usually the sign of the Infinitive mood. But it is sometimes omitted.

✓ (a) The "to" is left out after the following Principal verbs:—

- ✓ Please do this = please to do this.
 ✓ I hear thee speak (to speak) of a better land.
 I saw him take (to take) aim with his bow.
 You need not send (to send) those books to me.
 I feel the cold air strike (to strike) against my face.
 He dared not say (to say) this in open day.
 He made me come (to come) and sit (to sit) beside him.
 I let him go (to go) back to his own house.
 They bade me tell (to tell) them the right road.
 We watched him go (to go) and come (to come).
 We beheld the fish rise (to rise).
 I have known him laugh (to laugh) for nothing.

✓ Note.—The "to" is not always omitted after "dare," when this verb is Affirmative; as, "he dares to go."

✓ (b) The "to" is left out after Auxil. and Defective verbs:—

✓ He shall go	equals	He is ordered to go.
He should go	"	He ought to go.
I can go	"	I am able to go.
I could go	"	I was able to go.
I must go	"	I am compelled to go.
I may go	"	I am permitted to go.
I might go	"	I was permitted to go.
I will go	"	I am willing to go.
I would go	"	I was willing to go.
I do not go	"	I go not.
I did go	"	I went.

(c) The "to" is also left out after the verb "had," in such phrases as "had better," "had rather," "had sooner," "had as soon . . . as."

✓ You had better *not remain* here.
 I had rather *take* this than that.
 I had sooner *run* than *walk*.
 I had as soon *run* as *walk*.

Note.—"Had" is here used in a Subjunctive sense—would have. "I had better not remain here," means "I would have the better not to remain here"; that is, "It would be better for me not to remain."

✓ (d) The "to" is left out after the conjunction "than":—

✓ He is better able *to walk* than *run*=(than he is able *to run*).

✓ (e) The "to" is left out after the preposition "but," provided it is preceded by the verb "do":—

✓ He *did* nothing but *laugh* (=to laugh).

Imp.

The two kinds of Infinitive.

234. There are two kinds of Infinitives, the forms of which are identical, though their uses are so different as to represent different parts of speech:—

✓ I. The Noun-Infinitive; sometimes called the Simple.

✓ II. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive.

Note.—In Old English the Simple Infinitive was a *Noun* and had no such word as "to" before it; while a *Gerund* in the sense of purpose was expressed by the preposition "to," followed by an inflected case of the Noun-Infinitive. This accounts for the names "Noun-Infinitive" and "Gerundial Infinitive." But the "to" is now usually given to the Noun-Infinitive also.

✓ 235. The Noun-Infinitive may be used—(a) as Subject to a verb; (b) as Object to a verb; (c) as Complement to a verb; (d) as Object to certain prepositions; or (e) as a form of exclamation:—

✓ (a) Subject to a verb:—

✓ *To err* (=error) is human; *to forgive* (=forgiveness) is divine.

✓ (b) Object to a verb:—

✓ They expect *to succeed* (=success).

✓ A good man does not fear *to die* (=death).

✓ (c) Complement to a verb:—

✓ He appears *to be* a wise man. (*Intransitive*.)

✓ They ordered him *to be punished*. (*Factitive*.)

✓ I did go; I should go; I may go; I might go, etc. (*Auxiliary*.)

✓(d) Object to the prepositions named below :—

—He was *about* (=near) *to die* (=death).

—They came *for to see* (=for seeing) the sport.

They desired nothing *except or but to succeed* (=succeed).

He did nothing else *than laugh*.

Note.—Such a phrase as “for to see” is now obsolete, though it occurs in the New Testament. The “for” is now always omitted, and the Noun-Infinitive then becomes the Gerundial.

✓(e) As a form of exclamation :—

—Foolish fellow ! *to suppose* that he could be pardoned !

Note.—In this construction the Infinitive is absolute (§ 28, b).

✓236. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive can be used (a) to qualify a verb, (b) to qualify a noun, (c) to qualify an adjective, (d) to introduce a parenthesis :—

—(a) To qualify a verb, in the sense of *purpose, cause, or result* :—

—He came *to see* (for the purpose of seeing) the sport. (*Purpose.*)

He wept *to see* (because of seeing) that sight. (*Cause.*)

He worked hard only *to be* (with the result of being) defeated at last. (*Result.*)

✓(b) To qualify a noun, in the sense of *purpose*. The Infinitive may be either attributive or predicative (§ 113).

{ A house *to let*. (*Attributive use.*)

✓ { This house is *to let*. (*Predicative use. Complement to Verb.*)

✓ { Give him a chair *to sit on*. (*Attributive use.*)

✓ { Your condition is *to be pitied*. (*Predicative use.*)

Note.—Whenever the verb is Intransitive, as “*sit*,” it must always be followed by a preposition. We cannot say “a chair *to sit*.”

✓(c) To qualify an adjective, in the sense of *respect or purpose* :—

✓ Quick *to hear* and slow *to speak*.

“Quick” in what respect or for what purpose ? To hear. “Slow” in what respect or for what purpose ? To speak.

✓(d) To introduce a Parenthesis ; that is, a phrase thrust into the middle of a sentence by way of comment on something said :—

✓ I am,—*to tell* you the truth,—quite tired of this work.

They were thunderstruck,—*so to speak*,—on hearing this news.

Note.—In (a) and (c) the Gerundial Infinitive does the work of an dverb. In (b) it does the work of an adjective. In (d) it is absolute ; see § 28 (b).

§ 10.—PARTICIPLES.

237. The forms of the different Participles are as shown below :—

Transitive Verbs.

	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Present or Continuous</i>	Loving	Being loved
<i>Past</i>	(<i>Wanting</i>)	Loved
<i>Perfect</i>	Having loved	Having been loved

Intransitive Verbs.

<i>Present or Continuous</i>	Fading
<i>Past</i>	Faded
<i>Perfect</i>	Having faded

238. **Double Character of Participles.**—It was shown in § 18 that a Participle is a double part of speech—a verb and an adjective combined. We have now, therefore, to describe it in each of these characters :—

- ✓ (1) As part of a Finite verb.
- ✓ (2) As an Adjective qualifying some noun.

I. *As part of a Finite verb.*

— 239. The student will have seen already that many of the tenses of English verbs are formed with the help of the Past or Present Participle.

— Thus all the tenses of the Passive voice are formed out of the verb “to be” followed by the Past Participle; as, “I am loved,” “I was loved,” “I shall be loved.”

— Again, all the Continuous tenses in the Active voice are formed out of the verb “to be,” followed by the Present Participle; as, “I am loving,” “I was loving,” “I shall be loving.”

— Again, the Perfect tenses in the Active voice are formed out of the verb “to have,” followed by the Past Participle; as, “I have loved,” “I had loved,” “I shall have loved.”

II. *As an Adjective.*

✓ 240. A Participle, when it is an adjective, belongs to the class of Descriptive (§ 90). Like other such adjectives, it can (a) qualify a noun, (b) be qualified by an adverb, (c) admit of degrees of comparison, (d) be used as a noun :—

- (a) *Being tired* of work, *the men* went home.
- (b) The man was picked up in an *almost dying* state.
- (c) This flower is *more faded* than that.
- (d) { Let *bygones* be *bygones*.
We cannot undo *the past*.

✓241. Since a Participle is a verb as well as an adjective, it can take an Object, which may be of five kinds (§ 193):—

- Having shot *the tiger*, he returned home. (*Direct Obj.*)
- He is here, teaching *his sons* Greek. (*Indirect Obj.*)
- Having been taught *Greek*, he was a good scholar. (*Retained Obj.*)
- He saw them fighting a *hard battle*. (*Cognate Obj.*)
- Having sat *himself* down, he began to eat. (*Reflexive Obj.*)

✓242. Past Participle.—The use of such participles depends upon whether the verb is Transitive or Intransitive:—

✓(a) If the verb is *Transitive*, the Past Participle is never used in the Active voice, but only in the Passive:—

- ✓ This much-*praised* man proved to be a rogue.
- Gold is a metal *dug* out of the earth.

✓(b) If the verb is *Intransitive*, the Past Participle is not used at all in most verbs. But whenever it is used—(a matter depending entirely on custom), it must *precede* its noun, and not follow it:—

- The *faded* rose. A *failed* candidate. A *retired* officer. The *returned* soldier. The *dead* horse. The *fallen* city. The *risen* sun. A *withered* flower. A *departed* guest.

If the speaker or writer desires to place the Past Participle of an Intransitive verb *after* its noun, he must insert the Relative pronoun and change the participle into a Finite verb; as—

The horse of Mr. A., *proceeded* to England, is for sale. (This is wrong. The sentence should be—"The horse of Mr. A., *who* has *proceeded* to England, is for sale.")

Correct the following:—

- There is now no scent in the rose *faded* this morning.
- Lamps are lighted from oil *risen* out of the earth.
- This was the sword of the soldier *returned* to his country.
- I am sorry for the candidate *failed* in the last examination.

But the Past Participle of an Intransitive verb is sometimes put *after* its noun in *poetry*.

- A Daniel *come* to judgment.—*Shakspeare*.
- Mourn for the brave—the brave that are no more,
- All *sunk* beneath the wave, hard by their native shore.—*Cowper*.

Even in prose the Past Participle of an Intransitive verb is sometimes, but *very rarely*, placed after its noun:—

In times *past* = in times which have passed.

He is a man *descended* from a high family.

These are very exceptional cases and should not be imitated.

243. The Past Participle of verbs is sometimes used to express some *permanent habit, state, or character* :—

A well-read man = a man who has read much and read well.

A well-behaved man = a man whose habitual behaviour is good.

An out-spoken man = a man who habitually speaks out his mind.

A retired man = a man who makes a habit of retiring from public notice, a man of a retiring disposition.

From this use of the Past Participle has arisen a large class of Adjectives, which are formed from nouns by adding “*ed*” to the end of the noun.

An evil-heart-ed man. A hot-head-ed man. A land-ed proprietor.

A long-tail-ed ape. A smooth-skin-ned cat. His saint-ed

mother. A red-colour-ed rose. A rough-face-d youth. A

hood-ed snake. A long-leg-ged spider. A purple-crest-ed helmet.

A many-page-d book. A long-arm-ed monkey. A thickly-

wood-ed hill. A noble-mind-ed man. A warm-blood-ed animal.

✓ 244. Meanings implied in Participles.—Participles must be parsed as Verbal Adjectives qualifying their nouns. ✓ But sometimes there is a further *meaning* implied in them, which can be more fully expressed by changing the participial phrase into a clause.

✓ The implied meanings are (a) Time, (b) Cause or Reason, (c) Condition, (d) Concession or Contrast.

(a) Time.

Walking along the street (= *while* I was walking), I met a friend.

Having met my friend (= *after* I had met my friend), I went back with him to his house.

(b) Cause or Reason.

Being tired with the toil (= *because* he was tired), he sat down to rest.

The letter, *having been addressed* (= *because* it was addressed) to the wrong house, never reached me.

(c) Condition.

Turning to the left (= *if* you turn to the left), you will find the place you want.

(d) Concession or Contrast.

Admitting (= *though* I admit) what you say, I still think that you made a mistake.

He *being* dead (= *although* he is dead), yet speaketh. — *New Testament*.

§ 11.—GERUNDS AND VERBAL NOUNS.

245. A Gerund has four forms—two for the Active voice and two for the Passive.

	Active.	Passive.
<i>Present or Continuous</i>	Loving	Being loved
<i>Perfect</i>	Having loved	Having been loved

246. The forms of a Gerund, then, are the same as those of a Participle, and both are parts of a verb. What, then, is the difference? A Gerund is a kind of *Noun*; but a Participle is a kind of *Adjective*. So in spite of the resemblance in form, they are quite distinct in nature.¹

The reason of the resemblance in form is a matter of history. In Old English the forms of the Verbal Adjective and Verbal Noun were quite distinct.

Participle	Writing
Gerund	Writing

In later English the two suffixes, *ende* and *ung*, both gradually took the form of *ing*, and hence we have now only one form instead of two for the two parts of speech.

Participle	Writing
Gerund	Writing

247. Double character of Gerunds.—It was shown in § 18 that a Gerund is a double part of speech—a noun and verb combined. We have now therefore to describe it in each of these characters:—

- (1) As a kind of Noun.
(2) As part of a Verb.

Since a Gerund is a kind of noun, it must be the subject to some verb (Transitive or Intransitive); or the object to some verb (Transitive); or the complement to some verb (Intransitive or Factitive); or the object to some preposition; as—

Subject to a verb.—Sleeping is necessary to life.

Object to a verb.—He enjoyed sleeping in the open air.

Complement to a verb.—His almost constant habit was sleeping.

Object to a preposition.—He was fond of sleeping.

In the following sentences say whether the words noted below are Gerunds or Participles:—

¹ In some grammars the Gerund is called a Participial noun. This name should be avoided, since a Noun is one part of speech and a Participle is another.

The rice will grow well in the *coming* rains. We heard of his *coming* back to-day. Did you hear of his *having won* a prize? The boy *having won* a prize was much praised. She was fond of *being admired*. *Being admired* by all she was much pleased. The cow *having been killed* by a tiger yesterday could not be found. The boy was ashamed of *having been beaten* in class by his sister. I am tired of *doing* this work. *Doing* this work every day you will soon improve. *Spelling* is more difficult than *writing*. He was in the habit of *boasting* of his cleverness. A *boasting* man is much despised.

248. A Gerund an Abstract Noun.—It has been explained already in § 44, that a Gerund is a kind of Abstract noun, and has the same meaning as an Abstract noun proper or as a Noun-Infinitive:—

{ *Gerund*.—*Sleeping* is necessary to health.
 { *Noun-Inf.*—*To sleep* is necessary to health.
 { *Abstract Noun*.—*Sleep* is necessary to health.

✓ 249. Gerund with an Object.—Since a Gerund is a part of some verb, it can take an object after it, which may be of any of the five kinds shown in § 193, *Note*.

Direct (with Trans.).—He is clever at teaching *Euclid*.

X Indirect (with Trans.).—He is clever at teaching *his sons* Euclid.

Retained (with Passive).—He is pleased at being taught *Euclid*.

Cognate (with Intrans.).—He is proud of having fought a good *fight*.

Reflexive (with Intrans.).—He is in the habit of oversleeping *himself*.

U 250. Gerund with Possessives.—A noun or pronoun, provided it denotes a person or other animal, must be in the Possessive case, when it is placed before a Gerund:—

X I was pleased at *his* coming to-day. (It is not so good to say, "I was pleased at *him* coming to-day.")

He was displeased at the *barber's* not coming. (It is not so good to say, "He was displeased at the *barber* not coming.")

It is a common mistake of Indian students to say:—"I ask *your* favour of doing this." This is not in correct idiom. The sentence should be—"I ask the favour of *your doing* this."

Note 1.—The following use of a Gerund preceded by a Possessive noun or pronoun sometimes occurs:—

This was a work of *my doing* (=done by me).

That house was of *an architect's designing* (=designed by an architect).

Note 2.—Sometimes the letter "a" is placed before a Gerund in a prepositional sense:—

This set him *a-thinking*.

The man has gone *a-hunting*.

Here the "a" is a corruption or abbreviation of the preposition *on*.

✓ 251. Gerundive use of Participles.—Such participles are not Gerunds, but participles used in a Gerundive sense:—

X I depend on the wall *being built* immediately.

Now if “wall” could be put into the Possessive case, we should say, “I depend on the *wall's* being built immediately.” But as this cannot be done (see § 64), we are compelled to say—

I depend on the *wall* being built immediately.

How are we to parse “being built” in such a connection? It is not enough to say that it is an ordinary participle; for it does more than qualify the noun “wall.” The sentence does not mean “I depend on the wall,” but “I depend on the *wall being built* immediately,” that is, “on the immediate *building* of the wall.” There is therefore a gerund or gerundial noun implied in the participle “being built,” and hence such participles can be called Gerundive Participles.

252. A Verbal noun is the same thing at bottom as a Gerund, but a distinction has been drawn between them.

A Verbal noun is preceded by the Definite article and followed by the preposition “of”; whereas a Gerund has no article preceding it and no preposition following it. The former construction is the original one. The latter is modern, and arose simply out of the omission of the preposition “of.”

(a) I am engaged in *the* careful reading *of* a book. (*Verbal noun.*)

(b) I am engaged in carefully reading a book. (*Gerund.*)

In (a) “*reading*” is a *single* part of speech,—a noun and nothing more. In (b) “*reading*” is a *double* part of speech,—a noun and verb combined. Observe too that the verbal noun is qualified by an adjective (careful) and the gerund by an adverb (carefully).

Note 1.—Sometimes the “*of*” is left out, even when there is a Definite article going before:—

The *giving* to the Court the power to review hard and unconscionable bargains will control the rest.—*Review of Reviews*, August 1898, p. 165.

Here there is no “*of*” after the word “*giving*.” In such a construction we cannot distinguish between a Verbal Noun and a Gerund.

Note 2.—The abstract noun, which we call a Verbal noun or a Gerund is sometimes used in a concrete sense:—

I am pleased with my *surroundings*.

He went away with all his *belongings*.

Parsing Models for Verbs.



(1) *The horse was taken to the stable.*

Was taken—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood, passive voice of the verb “to take,” agreeing with its nominative case or subject “horse.”

(2) *The man and his friend walked into the field.*

Walked—Verb intransitive, third person, plural number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood of the verb “to walk,” agreeing with its two subjects “man” and “friend.”

(3) *I have long been absent from home.*

Have been—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, present perfect tense, indicative mood of the verb “to be,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

(4) *I shall go home, but you will stop here.*

Shall go—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, future tense, indicative mood of the verb “to go,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

Will stop—Verb intransitive, second person, singular number, future tense, indicative mood of the verb “to stop,” agreeing with its subject “you.”

(5) *Take a seat on this bench.*

Take—Verb transitive, second person, singular number, imperative mood of the verb “to take,” agreeing with its subject “thou” or “you” understood.

(6) *Were I in his place, I would pay the rupee.*

Were—Verb Intransitive, first person, singular number, past tense, subjunctive mood of the verb “to be,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

Would pay—Verb transitive, first person, singular number, past tense, subjunctive mood of the verb “to pay,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

(7) *You need not send those books to me.*

Send—Verb transitive, infinitive mood, object to the verb “need.”

(8) *Having found his friend he was much pleased.*

Having found—Verb transitive, perfect participle of the verb “to find,” qualifying the pronoun “he.”

(9) *He was much pleased at having found his friend.*

Having found—Verb transitive, perfect form of gerund of the verb “to find,” object to the preposition “at.”

CHAPTER VI.—ADVERBS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF ADVERBS.

253. Adverb defined.—An Adverb is a word used to qualify any part of speech except a noun or pronoun (§ 12).

Note.—The definition given in other grammars is :—“An adverb is a word used to qualify a verb, adjective, or other adverb.”¹

But this is evidently wrong, since an adverb may, and very often does, qualify Prepositions and Conjunctions :—

(a) Prepositions :—

✓ The bird flew *exactly over* the sleeper's head.

He paid the money *quite up* to date.

This mistake was made *entirely through* your fault.

He was sitting *almost outside* the door.

He arrived *long before* the time.

He wept *partly through* sorrow and *partly through* anger.

(b) Conjunctions :—

✓ A man is truly happy *only when* he is in sound health.

I dislike this place *simply because* the air is too hot.

I wish to know *precisely how* it happened.

They locked the door *shortly before* the thieves came.

The watch was found *long after* the thieves had been caught.

He has been ill *ever since* he left us.

It is immaterial whether we say that the adverb qualifies the *Preposition only* or the *entire phrase* introduced by the preposition. Similarly, we could say with equal truth that the adverb qualifies the *Conjunction only* or the *entire clause* that follows it.

Note.—If for an adverb proper we substitute an adverbial phrase, we find that such a phrase can qualify a preposition or a conjunction in the same way as an adverb proper does :—

Preposition.—He arrived *a few hours after* midnight.

Conjunction.—He recovered *ten days after* he had been taken ill.

254. An Adverb can qualify not merely individual words, but an entire Assertive sentence (§ 2, 1). *In this case it must stand first in the sentence.*

¹ Angus and Bain both admit that the qualifying power of adverbs is not limited to adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs; but both have none the less adhered to the old definition. The same admission, but without any departure from the old definition, is made by Mason, who in a footnote to page 105 of *English Grammar*, ed. 1891, points out that “an adverb sometimes modifies a preposition.” Since the old definition is admittedly wrong, it is better to put a more accurate one in its place.

Unfortunately the thief was not caught.
Evidently you were much distressed at the news.

We could rewrite these sentences in the following form :—

It is unfortunate that the thief was not caught.
It was evident that you were much distressed.

255. *Adverbs do not qualify Nouns or Pronouns.* This is the work of adjectives.

The apparent exceptions to the above rule can all be explained :—

(a) I am *sincerely yours*. That book is *certainly mine*.

Here the words “yours” and “mine” are the Possessive forms of “you” and “I,” and are, therefore, equivalent to *adjectives* (§ 145).

(b) A by-path ; a fore-taste ; an out-house.

Here the adverbs do not qualify the several nouns, but are *compounded* with them, so that each compound makes a *single* word.

(c) In the following examples the adverb that precedes the noun does not qualify the noun, but some participle or adjective understood :—

The then king = the king then *reigning*.
The late king = the king lately *reigning*.
The above account = the account *given* above.
A far country = a country far *distant*.
An up mail = an up-going mail.

(d) In the following example the adverb “almost” does not qualify the noun “drunkard,” but the verb “is” :—

He is *almost* a drunkard.

To say, “He is an almost drunkard,” would be incorrect.

256. Adverbs are subdivided into three distinct classes :

I. Simple. II. Interrogative. III. Relative.

257. Simple Adverbs. — These can be distinguished from one another according to their meaning :—

(a) Time :—

He did this *before*, and you have done it *since*. He will soon arrive. He was taken ill *yesterday*.

The chief adverbs of this class are :—*Now, then, before, since, ago, already, soon, presently, immediately, instantly, early, late, afterwards, yesterday, to-day, to-morrow.*

(b) Place :—

We must rest *here*, and not *there*.

The chief adverbs of this class are :—*Here, there ; hence, thence ; hither, thither ; in, out ; within, without ; above, below ; inside, outside ; far, near, etc.*

(c) Number :—

He did this *once*, but he will not do it *again*.

The chief adverbs of this class are :—*Once, twice, thrice, again, seldom, never, sometimes, always, often, firstly, secondly, thirdly, etc.*

(d) Manner, Quality, or State :—

He did his work *slowly*, but *surely*.

To this class of adverb belong :—*Thus, so, well, ill, amiss, badly, probably, certainly, conveniently, etc.*

(e) Quantity, Extent, or Degree :—

He is *almost*, but not *quite*, the cleverest boy in the class.

To this class of adverb belong :—*Very, much, too, quite, almost, little, a little, rather, somewhat, half, partly, wholly, so, etc.*

Note 1.—*Thus, so, the.*—These have been distinctively called *Demonstrative* adverbs, because they are akin to *Demonstrative* adjectives,—"thus" and "the" being akin to "this" or "that," and "so" to "such." They all denote either *manner* or *extent*.

Thus.—He did it *thus* (in this or that manner).

So.—He loved her *so* (in such a manner or to such an extent).

The.—He worked *the* (to that extent) harder, because he had been encouraged.

Note 2.—The adverb "the" is quite distinct from the *Definite Article*. It represents an old inflection of the *Demonstrative*, and is never used except before an adjective or adverb in the *Comparative* degree. Adverbial "the" is the old *Instrumental* case "thi."

(f) Affirming or Denying :—

He did *not* come after all.

Examples :—*Yes, no, not, yea, nay, not at all, by all means, etc.*

258. Interrogative Adverbs.—This is the name given to those adverbs that are used for asking questions :—

(a) Time :—

When did he come? *How long* will he remain here?

(b) Place :—

Where did he stop? *Whence* has he come? *Whither* is he going?

(c) Number :—

How often did the dog bark?

(d) Manner, Quality, or State :—

How did he do this? *How* (in what state of health) is he to-day?

(e) Quantity or Degree :—

How far (to what extent) was that report true?

(f) Cause or Reason :—

Why (for what reason) did he do this? *Wherefore* did she weep?

259. The adverb "*how*" is sometimes used in an exclamatory sense :—

How kind of you to do that !

How often have you been cautioned !

"*What*" in the sense of quantity or degree is similarly used in an exclamatory sense :—

What a foolish fellow you are !

What clever sons you have !

260. **Relative Adverbs.**—These are the same in *form* as Interrogative adverbs ; but instead of asking questions, they join two sentences together. Hence a Relative adverb is a double part of speech,—an adverb and conjunction combined, as was pointed out in § 18 (3).

These adverbs are called *Relative* for two reasons—(1) Because they relate to some antecedent, expressed or understood, as Relative pronouns do ; (2) because they are formed from Relative pronouns :—

(a) *The antecedent understood.*

This is *where* (=the place in which) we dwell.

Let me know *when* (=the time by which) you will come.

(b) *The antecedent expressed.*

This is the place *where* we dwell.

Let me know the time *when* you will come.

261. "**The**" as a Relative Adverb.—The word "*the*" is a *Relative* adverb of Quantity, and is always followed by its antecedent "*the*," which is a *Demonstrative* adverb of Quantity.

The more (wealth) men have, *the* more they desire.

The sooner he comes, *the* better for him.

Note 1.—The *first* "*the*" is the *Relative* adverb, and the *second* one is the *Demonstrative* adverb :—" *To what extent* men have more wealth, *to that extent* they desire more."

Note 2.—This pair of adverbs is never used except in combination with some adjective or other adverb in the *Comparative* degree.

Note 3.—The *Relative* "*the*" is never used unless it is followed by its antecedent, the *Demonstrative* "*the*." But the *Demonstrative* "*the*" can be used alone :—

He worked *the* (to that extent) harder, because he had been encouraged by his teacher.

§ 2.—DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN ADVERBS.

262. Some Adverbs have degrees of comparison like adjectives ; and these are formed in the same kind of way :—

(a) If the Adverb is a word of *one* syllable, the Com-

parative is formed by adding *er* and the Superlative by adding *est* :—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Soon	sooner	soonest
Long	longer	longest
Loud	louder	loudest
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest

(b) Some Adverbs form the degrees of comparison in an irregular way :—

Well	better	best
Ill or badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Forth	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest

(c) Adverbs ending in *ly* form the Comparative by adding *more* and the Superlative by adding *most* :—

Wisely	more wisely	most wisely
Beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

Note.—The adverb “*early*,” however, has “*earlier*” for its Comparative.

§ 3.—THE FORMS OF ADVERBS.

263. Some Adverbs have the same form as the corresponding Adjectives ; as—

<i>Adverb.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>
He was <i>much</i> pleased.	There is <i>much</i> sickness here.
He stayed <i>long</i> .	He went on a <i>long</i> journey.
He spoke <i>loud</i> .	There is a sound of <i>loud</i> voices.
He came <i>early</i> .	He woke up at an <i>early</i> hour.
He hit him <i>hard</i> .	This is a <i>hard</i> piece of wood.
He came <i>quick</i> .	They rode along at a <i>quick</i> pace.
Stand <i>near</i> while I speak.	He is my <i>near</i> relation.
He was a <i>little</i> tired.	There is a <i>little</i> hope now.
He came <i>only</i> once.	This is my <i>only</i> son.
He has slept <i>enough</i> .	He has eaten <i>enough</i> bread.

264. Adverbs in “*ly*.”—Most Adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *ly* (a short form of *like*) ; and there is generally an Abstract noun which can be placed between the adjective and the adverb :—

<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Abstract Noun.</i>	<i>Adverb.</i>
Wise	wisdom	wisely
Poor	poverty	poorly
High	height	highly
Short	shortness	shortly

265. Adverbs formed from "the," "he," "who." These are sometimes called Pronominal adverbs:—

		ADVERBS				
		Rest.	Motion to.	Motion from.	Time.	Manner.
<i>Dem.</i>	The	there	thither	thence	then	thus
	He	here	hither	hence
<i>Rel.</i>	Who	where	whither	whence	when	how
<i>Inter.</i>	Who?	where?	whither?	whence?	when?	how?

Many of the above adverbs can be compounded with prepositions or other adverbs:—

From "there" we get *therein*, *thereto*, *thereat*, *therefore*, *therefrom*, *therewith*, *thereout*, *thereon* or *thereupon*, *thereof*, *thereby*.

From "here" we get *herein*, *hereto*, *heretofore*, *hereat*, *herewith*, *hereon* or *hereupon*, *hereof*, *hereby*, *hereafter*.

From "where" we get *wherein*, *whereto*, *wherefore*, *whereon*.

From "hither" we get *hitherto* (=up to this place or time).

From "thence" we get *thenceforth*, *thenceforward*.

From "hence" we get *henceforth*, *henceforward*.

266. Adverbs formed from Possessive nouns.—These are sometimes called Genitival adverbs:—

Needs (=of need, necessarily). *Once* (=of one, or of one time). *Twice* (=of two times). *Sometimes* (=of some time). *Always* (=of all way). *Sideways* (=of a side-way). *Length-ways* (=of a length-way). *Else* (=of other, from an old form, "elles," of another).

267. Adverbial Phrases.—There is a large number of phrases in English, which do the work of Adverbs and are therefore called Adverbial phrases (see § 30, a).

(1) A preposition followed by a noun:—*At random* (aimlessly); *of course* (necessarily); *at length* (finally); *in fact* (actually); *to boot* (moreover); *of a truth* (truly).

(2) A preposition amalgamated with a noun:—*Indeed* (actually); *betimes* (punctually); *besides* (in addition); *between* (in the middle of two or twain); *to-day* (on this day); *to-morrow*; *asleep* (in a state of sleep); *abed* (in bed); *away* (on the way).

Note.—The "be" is an old form of the preposition "by." The "a" is a contracted form of the preposition "on."

- (3) A preposition followed by an adjective. Some noun is understood after the adjective :—*In general, in particular, in short, at large, in vain, on high, of old, after all, at first, at last, at least, at all, at most, at best, in future, at present.*
- (4) A preposition amalgamated with an adjective. Here, as before, some noun is understood after the adjective :—*Below, beyond, behind, abroad, anew, awry, across, along, aloud, etc.*
- (5) A noun qualified by an adjective :—*Meantime, meanwhile, midway, yesterday, etc.* (On the Adverbial objective, see § 386, 5.)
- (6) An Adverb compounded with a preposition :—*Forthwith, within, without, forever, at once, before, beneath.*
- (7) Miscellaneous phrases :—*By all means, by no means, by the by* (something said in passing), *by the way* (the same meaning as *by the by*), *once on a time, inside out, upside down, to be sure* (certainly), *head foremost* (with the head in front), *head downwards, topsy-turvy, head over heels* (the head being thrown over the heels).

268. Adverbs sometimes go together in pairs, the one being connected with the other by the conjunction "and":—

He is walking *up and down, to and fro.*
 He is walking *here and there, hither and thither.*
 The mice run *in and out, backwards and forwards.*
 He comes here *now and then* (occasionally).
 He works *off and on* (irregularly).
 You will see him *by and by* (in a short time).

§ 4.—VERBS COMPOUNDED WITH ADVERBS.

269. A Verb is said to be compounded with an Adverb, when the two words are so habitually used together, that one is considered to be a part of the other.

Such Adverbs are almost always (except in poetry) placed *after* the verb; as "speak out," "rise up." Here the *out* should be parsed as part of the verb "speak"; and *up* as part of the verb "rise."

But in forming the corresponding noun, the adverb is put first :—

<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>
The crops will <i>come out</i> well.	The <i>outcome</i> was a good crop.
No profits will <i>come in</i> .	His <i>income</i> is small.
Cholera did not <i>break out</i> .	There was no <i>outbreak</i> of cholera.
He <i>set out</i> on his journey.	He had no trouble at the <i>outset</i> .

Similar instances are :—*Set off* (verb), *offset* (noun); *put out* (verb), *output* (noun); *fit out* (verb), *outfit* (noun); *shoot off* (verb), *offshoot* (noun); *spring off* (verb), *offspring* (noun); *shoot up* (verb), *upshot* (noun); *turn out* (verb), *outturn* (noun); *cast out* (verb), *outcast* (noun); *set on* (verb), *onset* (noun); *lay out* (verb), *outlay* (noun); *look out* (verb), *outlook* (noun); *draw in* (verb), *indrawn* (noun); *let out* (verb), *outlet* (noun); *let in* (verb), *inlet* (noun); *cry out* (verb), *outcry* (noun); *pour out* (verb), *outpour* (noun).

§ 5.—THE TWO USES OF ADVERBS.

270. As in the case of Adjectives (see § 113), there are two different ways in which Adverbs can be used, viz. (a) the Attributive, (b) the Predicative.

(a) *Attributive use*.—An Adverb is used attributively, when it qualifies its word in the ordinary way,—that is, when it is placed as close as possible before it or after it :—

He is *entirely* wrong. He *shouted* loudly. He *did* his work *very* badly. *Half* through the door. I dislike him *only* because he is lazy.

(b) *Predicative use*.—An Adverb is used predicatively, when it is made part of the Predicate of a sentence, or in other words, when it is used as the Complement of the verb going before it :—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Complement, etc.</i>
My son	is	<i>well</i> (in good health) to-day.
He	will be	<i>better</i> (in better health) soon.
He	was turned	<i>adrift</i> (to go where he could).
The two boys	are	<i>much alike</i> (like to each other).
The bear	was caught	<i>alive</i> (in a living state).
Those men	are	<i>aware</i> (conscious) of their faults.
The game	is	<i>over</i> (finished).
Some money	was	<i>still over</i> (remaining).
The results	are	<i>out</i> (published).
The stars	are	<i>out</i> (visible).
He	was heard	<i>out</i> (to the very end).
The bargain	is	<i>off</i> (cancelled).
The train	is	<i>off</i> (started).
He	is	<i>well off</i> (in good circumstances).
Our side	is	<i>in</i> (having their innings).
The late minister	is	<i>in</i> (holding office) again.

CHAPTER VII.—PREPOSITIONS.

271. *Preposition defined*.—A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or noun-equivalent to show in what relation the person or thing denoted thereby stands to something else (§ 14). The noun or noun-equivalent is called the *Object*.

I place my hand *on* the table.

Here if the word “on” is omitted, there is no sense. The hand might be placed *on* the table, or *under* the table, or *above* the table. Until some preposition has been inserted, the relation between the hand and the table is not known.

272. (a) *Adverbs as Objects*.—Some adverbs of Time

or Place can be used as objects to prepositions denoting relations of Time or Place :—

We must be ready by *then* (=that time).

He has worked hard from *then* to *now*.

He walks about from *here* to *there*.

I have heard of worse things being done before *now*.

Until *now* it has not ceased raining.

Many strange things may happen between *now* and *then*.

You must go at *once*. This will last for *ever*.

(b) Phrases as Objects.—Certain adverbial phrases (that is, phrases which do not end in a preposition or a conjunction, see § 30 and § 267) can, like Simple Adverbs, be used as objects to a preposition :—

✓ The day-spring from *on-high* hath visited us.

He has come from *beyond-the-seas*.

He did not return till *about-ten-days-afterwards*.

He did not see her till *within-a-few-weeks-of-his-death*.

These books are sold at *over-one-rupee* each.

I bought this for *under-half-its-value*.

(c) Noun-clause as Object.—A noun-clause (see § 47) can be the object to a preposition in the same way as a noun or pronoun can be.

This depends upon | whether-he-will-consent-or-not.

He told every one of | what-he-had-heard.

Go whenever you like except | that-you-must-not-go-in-the-rain.

273. Omission of Object.—There are two cases of this :—

Relative Pronoun.—The man (*whom* or *that*) we were looking for.

Demonstrative Pronoun.—A chair to sit on (*it*). (See § 236, b.)

274. Forms of Prepositions.—Prepositions have six different forms :—(1) Simple, (2) Double, (3) Compound, (4) Participial, (5) Phrase prepositions, (6) Disguised prepositions.

(1) The Simple prepositions are :—*At, by, with, on, in, to, for, of* or *off, from, through, up, till, over, under, after*.

Note.—The prepositions "*after*," "*over*," and "*under*" are Comparative forms of "*of*," "*up*," and the Old English "*un*" respectively.

✓ (2) Double prepositions.—These are used when a single preposition is not sufficient to express the sense :—

The dog ran *into* the house. The lamp fell *onto* the table. One man was chosen *from among* the rest. The seed had sprouted *from under* the ground. The cart stands *over against* the bank. A live coal was taken *from off* the fireplace. He came *from within* the house.

(3) **Compound prepositions.**—These are formed from some noun, adjective, or adverb compounded with the preposition “*be*” (= *by*) or “*a*” (= *on*):—

Across (= *on cross*), *along*, *amidst* (= *on middle*), *behind* (= *by + hind*), *about* (= *on + by + out*), *above* (= *on + by + up*), *before* (= *by + fore*), *within*, *without*, *below*, *beneath* (= *by + neath*), *beside*, *between* (= *by + twain*), *beyond* (= *by + yonder*), *amongst* (= *on + gemang*, in a multitude), *but* (= *by + out*, except).

(4) **Participial prepositions.**—These were originally Present or Past Participles used absolutely with some noun either (a) expressed, or (b) understood:—

(a) **The noun expressed** (see § 384, 5).

Pending fresh orders = fresh orders *pending* or not yet being given.
During the summer = the summer *during* or enduring or still lasting.
Notwithstanding his anger = his anger *not-withstanding* or not preventing it.

All *except* one = all, one *being excepted*.

All *save* one = all, one *being saved* or reserved.

The hour *past* sunset = the hour, *sunset having passed*.

(b) **Some noun understood:** Impersonal absolute (see § 399, *Note* 2).

Considering your age you have done very well.

Owing to the long drought the crops have failed.

Inform me *concerning*, *touching*, or *regarding* this matter.

(5) **Phrase prepositions.**—Two or more words habitually thrown together and ending with a Simple preposition may be called *Phrase prepositions* or *Prepositional phrases* (see § 30, b):—

By means of; *because of*; *in front of*; *in opposition to*; *in spite of*; *on account of*; *with reference to*; *with regard to*; *for the sake of*; *on behalf of*; *instead of*; *in lieu of*; *in the place of*; *in prospect of*; *with a view to*; *in the event of*; etc.

Note.—The phrases “*on this side*” and “*on board*” do not take a Simple preposition after them; as—

On this side the river. *On board* the ship.

Similarly the noun “*despite*” can be used as a preposition for the prepositional phrase “*in spite of*”:—

Despite his riches, power, and pelf.—*Scott*.

(6) **Disguised prepositions.**—It has been shown already how “*by*” can be changed into “*be*” and “*on*” into “*a*,” as a prefix to certain nouns or adjectives, and how “*a*” can be used for “*on*” before a gerund (§ 251). “*O*” is used for “*of*” in “four o’clock,” “Jack o’lantern,” etc.

To the same class belong such phrases as the following:—

Wheat sells at sixteen seers *a rupee*.
 He called to see me once *a week*.
 He gave the coolies four annas *a piece*.

The “a” looks so much like the Indefinite Article, that by a false analogy “the” is sometimes used in its place; as—

Wheat sells at sixteen seers *the rupee*.

On the uses of Prepositions.

275. The following peculiarities in the use of Prepositions should be noted:—

(a) At, in.—“*At*” relates to a *small* extent of space or time; “*in*” to a *wider* extent:—

He will start *at* six o'clock *in* the morning.
 The end is *at* hand (= very close).
 The work is *in* hand (= in a state of progress).

(b) With, by.—“*With*” relates to the *instrument* employed for doing anything; “*by*” to the agent or doer:—

This book was written *by* me *with* a quill pen.

(c) After, in.—In relation to a *past* space of time we use “*after*”; in relation to a *future* space of time we use “*in*”:—

He died *after* (= at the close of) a few days. (*Past*.)
 He will die *in* (= at the close of) a few days. (*Future*.)

Note.—The mistake is often made of using “*after*” with reference to a space of *future* time; whereas it should be used only with reference to a space of *past* time. Hence we cannot say:—“He will die *after* a few days.”

(d) Between, among.—The first denotes “in the middle of two”; the second “in the middle of more than two”:—

Those two men quarrelled *between* themselves.
 Those three men quarrelled *among* themselves.

(e) Beside, besides.—The former means *by the side of*, and hence sometimes *outside of*. The latter means *in addition to*:—

He came and sat *beside* me (= by my side).
 Your answer is *beside* (= outside of, irrelevant to) the question.
Besides (= in addition to) advising he gave them some money.

(f) By, since, before.—These are all used for a *point* of time,—not for a *period* or *space* of time:—

You must be back *by* four o'clock.
 He has been here *since* four o'clock.
 He did not get back *before* four o'clock.

(g) **In, into.**—The preposition “*in*” denotes position or rest inside anything; while “*into*” denotes motion towards the inside of anything:—

The frog is *in* the well. (*Rest.*)

The frog fell *into* the well. (*Motion.*)

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank:—

I was brought up — Italy — Rome. The moon rose — twelve o'clock — the night. We knew him — a glance as soon as he came — sight. He lives — Nuddea — the province of Bengal. The boat was tied to the shore — a sailor — a rope. The field was ploughed up — a peasant — a pair of oxen. The work must be done — twelve o'clock. You must be back — a week from the present time. No one has seen him — Thursday last. I have not seen him — his last birthday. He will not get home — sunset. I shall be ready to start — two or three hours. Take care to be back — mid-day. I shall not be back — the end of the week. He has been absent from home — Friday last, and I do not think he will return — the 30th of next month. Let me see you again — an hour's time. I shall have completed my task — to-morrow evening. The train will start — forty minutes from now. I have lived — Allahabad — 1st March. I do not expect that he will be here — a week, and I am certain that he will not be here — sunset to-day.

276. (a) **Cause or reason** is expressed by *from*, *of*, *through*, *for*, *because of*, *owing to*, *in consequence of*:—

He almost died *of* fever. *Of* course he will be caught some day.

He failed *through* inattention to work. He could not speak *for* grief. The crops failed *from*, or *owing to*, or *because of*, or *in consequence of*, the want of rain.

(b) **Effect** is expressed by the preposition *to*, and by no other:—

To our great grief and surprise he was not successful.

He wasted his time in idleness *to* his own ruin.

(c) **Possession** is expressed by the Preposition *of*, unless the Possessive case-ending is used for this purpose:—

The palace *of* the king (=the king's palace) was pulled down.

The vote *of* the majority was against your proposal.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank:—

He will — necessity hear what you have to say. The house could not be finished — lack of funds. She died — sorrow at her great bereavement. He was plucked — the surprise of every one. The owner — this house has lowered his rent — many other houses being vacant in the neighbourhood. He deserves to be blamed — his idleness. Some medicine given at this time will be — his

benefit, unless in the meanwhile he dies — this attack of fever. I cannot sleep — thinking of all that I must do. — my great disappointment the house is not yet ready for me to enter.

277. (a) Exchange, or the fact of one thing being mistaken for another, is expressed by “*for*” :—

He gave me ten rupees *for* that box. (*Exchange.*)
The cat was taken *for* a dog in the dark. (*Mistake.*)

(b) Substitution is expressed by the prepositional phrases “*instead of*,” “*in the place of*,” “*in lieu of*,” and sometimes by “*for*” :—

A pronoun is a word used *instead of* a noun.
I will go to prison *in lieu of* paying the fine.

(c) Conflict or opposition is expressed by “*with*” or “*against*,” and that of defence by “*for*” :—

You are acting *for* my interests and *against* your own.
He was offended *with* me unjustly.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank :—

He was taken — a traveller. A viceroy is one who rules — a king or queen. Sixteen seers of wheat are sold — a rupee. He led his army — the city ; but the inhabitants fought bravely — their homes, and therefore — capturing the town he was repulsed. What he said and did was only meant — fun. He was picked up and carried off — dead. You have grappled bravely — your difficulties. He disputed that point — me. You must take my crop — a cash payment. Grain can be given — rent.

278. (a) Contrast is expressed by “*with*,” “*for*,” “*after*,” “*notwithstanding*,” and sometimes by such phrases as “*in spite of*,” “*despite*” :—

With (or *in spite of*) all his wealth he is discontented.

For all his promises he is a false man.

After (or *notwithstanding*) all the advice that he has received he persists in his folly.

(b) Adaptation or agreement is expressed by “*after*” or “*to*” :—

He was surnamed the Just *after* his character.

This tea is exactly *to* my taste.

(c) Exception is expressed by “*except*,” “*save*,” or “*but*” :—

All *but* (or *except* or *save*) one were successful.

(d) The idea of apposition is expressed by “*of*” :—

The season *of* winter. The city *of* Culcutta.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank :—

He always failed — when he tried. None — the brave deserves the fair. — all appearances he is seriously ill. This picture was painted — a good model. All — three were drowned in that shipwreck. He is still poor — all his labours. I distrust you — all your professions and fair words. You will not convince me — all your endeavours. Your dress is well suited — your figure, and would suit any one — a short man. Let the coat be made — this pattern at a cost — twenty rupees. He was a brute — a man — all that you may say in his praise. There is no large island near India — the island — Ceylon. The city — Patna is in the province — Behar. Such customs are not adapted — the continent — Asia. Men should not attempt to live — foreign models.

279. (a) Material, quality, and contents are expressed by the preposition “*of*” :—

This house was built *of* unburnt bricks. (*Material.*)

A cup *of* water is better than a glass *of* wine. (*Contents.*)

He is a man *of* excellent character. (*Quality.*)

(b) Valuation or rate is expressed by the preposition “*at*” :—

He lends out money *at* six per cent.

(c) Measure or standard is expressed by the preposition “*by*” :—

Rice is sold *by* the pound ; beer *by* the quart.

(d) Limit or extent is expressed by the prepositions “*to*” or “*up to*” :—

You shall pay me *to* the last farthing.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank :—

I prefer a book — travels to one — pictures. This must be done — any rate, or — all risks, or — all hazards, or — all events. He is taller than you — two inches. That portrait is true — the life. He did it as a labour — love, but not as a matter — duty. She wore a wreath — roses. A man continues to improve in mind and body — the age of thirty. Your agreement must be carried out — the very letter. I set all your threats — nought. He is a man — much experience, but you must not judge of him — his words. He fought out the question — the last, and set all their reproofs — defiance.

280. (a) Subject (as the subject of a book or speech) is expressed by “*of*,” “*on*,” “*about*,” “*concerning*,” “*as to*,” “*regarding*,” and “*in regard to*” :—

He spoke well *of* me.

This is a book *on* or *about* proverbs.

(b) Inference, motive, and source are expressed by the preposition "*from*":—

From what you tell me he must be a foolish man. (*Inference.*)

That was all done *from* ill feeling. (*Motive.*)

He is sprung *from* noble ancestors. (*Source.*)

(c) Direction or aim is expressed by the prepositions "*at*" and "*on*" or "*upon*," and sometimes by "*for*" and "*to*":—

He took his bow and aimed *at* the bird.

The enemy marched *upon* the town.

He started *for* London by the evening train.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank:—

We must take advice — that matter. He inquired — whether the train would arrive by twelve o'clock. You can see — his manner that he is speaking the truth. What he said, he said — his heart. He missed his aim, and they all laughed — him. You are rather severe — the student. The dog made a violent attack — the stranger. Dirty water comes — a dirty fountain. He shouted — him to come. Look — that beautiful star. He worked hard — a desire to earn his own living. One man winked — the other. This was his first attempt — English composition. He was sent — an errand of mercy. When do you intend to start — home?

281. (a) Reference to some particular point is expressed by "*of*" and "*in*," and these prepositions are generally preceded by some adjective:—

Free *of* his money. Pure *in* heart.

(b) Proportion is expressed by "*to*," and comparison by "*than*":—

I will bet four *to* one on his failing.

No one other *than* a graduate need apply for this post.

Note.—For other examples of the use of "*than*" as a preposition, see below, § 384 (b).

(c) Occupation is expressed by "*at*," or "*in*," or "*about*":—

He was again caught *at* his old tricks.

You may go *about* your business (a rude form of dismissal).

(d) Adjuration, or the taking of an oath, is expressed by the preposition "*by*":—

Lars Porseus of Clusium

By the nine Gods he swore.—*Macaulay.*

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank :—

He was faithful — deed as well as — word. My son, — whom a better son was never born, has just left college. He incurred a loss of ten — one through that imprudent bargain. A man dull — understanding and slow — speech is not likely to prosper. My friend is not only learned — Sanskrit, but versed — modern studies. Swear not at all ; neither — heaven, for it is God's throne ; nor — earth, for it is God's footstool ; nor — thy head, for thou canst not make one hair white or black. What are you — ? He is clever — translation. We all play fairly well — cricket. He is always engaged — business. A man should always be employed — something, and should not be sparing — labour in anything that he undertakes. Although he was short — money and timid — disposition, yet by dint of perseverance he conquered.

282. (a) Preparation to meet some expected event is expressed by "*against*" :—

She made the house ready *against* his arrival.

(b) Partition, or the mentioning of some part as distinct from a whole, is expressed by "*of*" :—

You *of* all men ought not to have acted thus.

(c) Distinction, or the distinguishing of one person or thing from another, is expressed by "*from*" :—

He scarcely knows one colour *from* another.

(d) Separation, or the fact of one thing being outside of or apart from another, is expressed sometimes by "*from*," sometimes by "*of*" or "*off*," and sometimes by "*out of*" :—

He is *from* home (not inside his house).

He was within an inch *of* being drowned.

He was thrown *off* his horse.

He worked in season and *out of* season.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank :—

He saved all the money he could spare — the evil day. A few men — the host were slain. A blind man cannot tell black — white, or light — darkness. Get all the men together — the arrival of the chief. I should not have known him — his brother. He inherited a third — the estate. He is something — a scholar. He never knows a friend — an enemy. Many — the wounded did not recover. That city is forty miles — here. We are now within three miles — the house. The man seems to be — his head. He is — debt. Calcutta is not very far — the sea. He was acquitted — that charge. We are — duty to-day, but shall be on duty again to-morrow. The school is — order. The flute is — tune. He broke himself — that habit. Can you cure me — this disease?

283. (a) Superiority is expressed by "*above*," and inferiority or unworthiness by "*beneath*":—

He is *above* (superior to) such a mean act.

His conduct is *beneath* contempt (not worthy even of being despised).

(b) Authority is expressed by "*over*," and subjection by "*under*":—

God is Lord *over* all.

Under whose authority was that done.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank:—

The conduct of such an honourable man is — suspicion. Such work is — a person of my poor abilities. Man is — the angels. The British army — Havelock marched into Lucknow. The general placed — the army is a man of long experience. His words are so false that they are — notice. A man should not marry a wife — him. Since you have been placed — me, I must obey. He was transferred — the orders of his superior. He is quite — your thumb.

284. (a) The preposition "*with*."—This has the following meanings:—

(1) **Against**; as, One king fought *with* another. He is angry *with* me. Why do you quarrel *with* me? I must not dispute the point *with* you. He grappled bravely *with* his evil star.

(2) **Companionship or union**; as, He came *with* his dog, but without his horse. *With* or without help we shall succeed. I will go *with* you. I made a contract *with* him.

(3) **Apart from**; as, I differ *with* you. I have parted *with* my horse. I *withdrew* (draw back or cancel) that remark. He *withheld* (held back or restrained) his hand.

(4) **Instrument**; see example in § 275 (b).

(b) The preposition "*than*."—This word is usually a Conjunction (see § 291, g). But in such examples as the following it is a Preposition:—

I will not take less than ten rupees	Kind of Object.
No one other than a graduate need apply	Noun.
My son, than whom a better does not exist, is here	
He got more than what he asked for	Rel. Pron.
He did nothing else than laugh	Noun clause.
	Noun-Inf.

CHAPTER VIII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

285. A Conjunction is a word for *joining*, and for no other purpose.

A Conjunction is never connected with an *object*, as a preposition is.

A Conjunction never *qualifies* a word, as an adverb does. It simply *joins* words or sentences.

Hence the same word can be an adverb in one place, a preposition in another, or a conjunction in another :—

I have seen this man *before*. (*Adverb.*)

He stood *before* the door. (*Preposition.*)

The rain fell *before* we reached home. (*Conjunction.*)

† 286. Conjunctions are sub-divided into two main classes :—

I. Co-ordinative, so called because they join sentences of co-ordinate (that is, of *equal*) rank.

II. Subordinative, so called because they join a *subordinate* or dependent sentence to a *principal* sentence (that is, to a sentence of *higher* rank).

§ 1.—CO-ORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

† 287. Sentences are Co-ordinate, when one is not dependent on the other, nor enters at all into its construction.

288. Sentences of equal rank can be combined together in four different ways, and this gives rise to four different kinds of Co-ordinative Conjunctions :—

(a) Cumulative.—By these one statement or fact is simply *added* to another.

(b) Alternative.—By these an alternative or *choice* is offered between one statement and another.

(c) Adversative.—By these conjunctions one statement or fact is *contrasted* with or set against another.

(d) Illative.—By these conjunctions one statement or fact is *inferred* or proved from another.

(a) Cumulative (addition).

And.—The one received a prize, *and* the other was promoted.

Both . . . and.—He was *both* degraded *and* expelled.

Also.—He is guilty, and you *also*.

Too.—He is an idler, and a gambler *too*.

As well as.—He *as well as* you is guilty.

No less than.—He *no less than* you is guilty.

Not only . . . but also.—He was *not only* accused, *but also* convicted.

Now.—They preferred Barabbas to Jesus ; *now*, Barabbas was a robber.

Well.—You have done the work very skilfully ; *well*, I did not expect it of you.

(b) Alternative (choice).

Either . . . or.—*Either* this man sinned *or* his parents.
 Neither . . . nor.—He was *neither* an idler *nor* a gambler.
 Otherwise, else, or.—Leave the room, *or* you will be caught.

(c) Adversative (contrast).

But.—He is sad, *but* hopeful.
 Still, yet.—He is very rich, *still* or *yet* he is not contented.
 Nevertheless.—All men were against him; *nevertheless* he persevered.
 However.—All men were against him; he stuck, *however*, to his point.
 Whereas, while.—Wisemen love truth; *whereas* or *while* fools shun it.
 Only.—Go where you like; *only* do not stay here.

(d) Illative (inference).¹

Therefore.—He was found guilty, and *therefore* he was hanged.
 Then, so, so then.—It is time to go: *so* or *so then* let us start, or let us start *then*.
 For.—He will die some day; *for* all men are mortal.

289. Among Cumulative Conjunctions the following peculiarities of use should be noticed:—

(a) Both . . . and.—By this pair of conjunctions we can join two words or sentences without giving more emphasis to the one than to the other:—

- (1) He is *both* a fool *and* a knave. (Here two words are added together. He is not a fool only, not a knave only, but both at once.)
- (2) He was *both* degraded from his class *and* punished with a heavy fine. (Here two sentences are added together.)

(b) As well as, no less than.—(These are Conjunctional Phrases; see § 30, c.) In adding one word or sentence to another, they give emphasis to the *first* of the two.²

- (1) He *as well as* you is guilty (= He is guilty *as well as* you are guilty).
- (2) He *no less than* you is guilty (= He is guilty *no less than* you are guilty).

¹ Mr. Mason includes these amongst adverbs, and says that they are not conjunctions. I have preferred, however, in this instance to adhere to the authority of Bain, who includes them amongst conjunctions. They certainly join the senses of two sentences together, and the conjunction "*because*" is the Subordinative counterpart to the Co-ordinative "*therefore*."

² As well as. This conjunctional phrase is Co-ordinative in one sense and Subordinative in another:—

(a) Co-ordinative:—

He *as well as* you is guilty = not only you, but he also is guilty.

(b) Subordinative:—

He does not write (*Principally*) *as well as* you do (*Dependent*)

(c) *Not only . . . but or but also.*—In adding one word or sentence to another, these give emphasis to the *second* of the two.

(1) *Not only* I, *but* all other men declare this to be true.

(2) That man was *not only* accused of the crime, *but also* convicted of it by the magistrate.

(d) *Now.*—This Conjunction (which must not be confounded with the adverb of time) introduces a new remark in *explanation* (not simply in continuation) of a previous one :—

And Pilate said unto them, “Will ye have this man or Barabbas?” They answered, “Not this man, but Barabbas.” *Now* Barabbas was a robber.—*New Testament.*

(e) *Well.*—This word (when it is used as a conjunction and not as an adverb) introduces a new remark implying satisfaction, regret, surprise, or any other feeling of the mind suggested by the previous remark :—

You have finished the work that was given you ;—*well*, you have done a good deal better than you usually do, and I am much pleased with your improvement.

Insert Co-ordinative Conjunctions in the places indicated by —

1. Hear the opinions of other men, — form thine own judgment.
2. He was not surpassed — by you — any one else.
3. We have — heard — read about that matter ; — we are in total ignorance, and unable to form an opinion about it.
4. We see poverty on all sides, — discontent nowhere.
5. He blamed them for their rashness, — relieved their wants.
6. The flowers have come out before their season ; — I have never seen such a thing before.
7. They were defeated indeed, — not disgraced.
8. He came upon me very suddenly ; — I had no time to run off — hide.
9. You are not a man to quarrel ; — we had better come to terms.
10. Glamis hath murdered sleep ; — he shall sleep no more.
11. The approach of the horsemen was now beyond doubt ; — a cloud of dust was seen in the distance, — a tramping of horses' feet was distinctly heard.
12. In the discharge of his duty he was a strict — just man.
13. The sound of a gun near at hand startled — my horse — myself.
14. Stone walls do not make a prison, — iron bars a cage.
15. The rain comes — goes in slight showers ; — the heavy rains have not yet set in.
16. My own house — yours is built of good lime — burnt brick ; — it will not crumble to pieces sooner than yours.

17. He has given each of you a sum of money ; — he has left you all his books — all his gardens.

18. Julius Cæsar was murdered in Rome by a gang of conspirators ; — Julius Cæsar was the first of the Roman Emperors.

19. He fell suddenly down in a fainting fit : several persons rushed forward to support him ; — they were too late.

20. He has run away with all the money entrusted to him ; — what steps shall we take ? Shall we search for him ourselves, — shall we employ the police ?

21. Civil wars have been usually marked — by the fierceness — by the stubborn pertinacity of the contending parties.

22. Heaven and earth may pass away ; — my words shall never pass away.

23. My son last term was — idle — in bad health ; — he was not promoted at the end of the term.

24. He paid off his debt in time ; — he would certainly have been imprisoned for debt.

25. He declared he would never forsake his post ; — he fled away at the first sign of danger.

26. Prince Azgid was good-natured, handsome, and clever ; — he was of rather a timid disposition.

27. This poor man must be off his head ; — he laughs at one time and weeps at another.

28. The temple stands in the middle of a fine masonry tank, — a marble bridge leads up to it : — this temple was built by an ancient Hindu Raja.

29. Do not take any part — in his amusements — his plots ; — you will get into trouble by being seen in his company.

30. They were determined to obtain his consent — by flattery, — by force, — by persuasion ; — they never succeeded after all.

31. My father made me go to school regularly every day ; — I should not now be so successful in life as I am.

32. He was so shocked at the sad news that he — spoke — wept, — went away in silence — was not seen again that day.

33. I hope you will remember to be just — generous to those who are dependent on you.

34. I must speak out ; — I shall blame myself ever afterwards.

35. He is a worthless fellow, possessed — of ability — industry — honesty — common sense ; — what sort of punishment can be inflicted on such a creature ?

36. Give thine ear to every man, — thy voice to few.

§ 2.—SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

290. One sentence is said to be *subordinate* to another, when it depends upon the other, *i.e.* enters into its construction with the force of a noun, adjective, or adverb.

The Dependent sentence is that to which some Subordinative Conjunction is prefixed.

The Principal sentence is that on which the subordinate or inferior sentence depends.

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Conjunction.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
I will read that book,	if	you advise me.

291. What are the different modes in which one sentence can be made to depend on another?

The chief modes of dependence are nine in number:—

- (a) Apposition, (b) Causation, (c) Effect, (d) Purpose, (e) Condition, (f) Concession or Contrast, (g) Comparison, (h) Extent or manner, (i) Time.

(a) Apposition,¹ or in a merely Introductory sense:—

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
He told us (the fact),	that rain had fallen.
He wrote to us (to the effect),	that he had arrived safely.
He made a promise,	that he would return soon.

The Dependent sentence in the above examples is in apposition with the noun in brackets, which may be either omitted or expressed.

(b) Cause or Reason:—

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
He will succeed,	because he has worked hard.
I will do this,	since you desire it.
Let us go to bed,	as it is now late.

(c) Effect:—

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
He talked so much,	that he made himself hoarse.

(d) Purpose:—

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
Men work,	that they may earn a living.
He took medicine,	in order that he might recover.
He took medicine,	so that he might recover.
He walked with a cane,	lest he should stumble.

¹ The word "*that*," if we look to its origin, is simply the neuter Demonstrative pronoun. How it became a Conjunction is thus explained by Mr. Mason in *English Grammar*, p. 122.

"*That*" was originally the neuter pronoun used to point to the fact stated in some previous clause or sentence. "It was good; he saw *that*." By inverting the order of the clauses, we get: "He saw *that* (namely) it was good." The primary clause has thus become a secondary or subordinate one; and "*that*" has become a subordinative conjunction.

Mr. Mason calls it "the Simple Conjunction of Subordination," a long and awkward name, less convenient than "Apposition."

Dr. Abbott in p. 257 of *How to Parse* calls it the conjunction of "Apposition."

When no noun stands before it for the purpose of apposition, it might be called the **Introductory conjunction**.

(e) Condition :—

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
I will do this,	<i>if</i> I am allowed.
They threatened to beat him,	<i>unless</i> he confessed (=if he did not confess).
I agree to these terms,	<i>provided</i> or <i>provided that</i> you will sign your name.
He gave a sudden start,	<i>as if</i> he had been shot (=as he would have done, if he had been shot).
You must leave the room,	<i>whether</i> you wish it or no (=you must leave the room under any condition whatever).

(f) Concession or Contrast :—

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
He is an honest man,	<i>though</i> or <i>although</i> he is poor.
He will never succeed,	<i>however</i> much he may try.
He was not contented,	<i>however</i> rich he became.
He was not refreshed,	<i>notwithstanding that</i> he slept long.

Note.—The conjunction “*however*,” when it is *co-ordinative*, stands alone, and is generally placed somewhere in the middle of its sentence. But when it is *subordinative*, it must be attached to some adverb as “*much*,” or to some adjective as “*rich*,” and is always placed at the beginning of its sentence :—

<i>Dependent.</i>	<i>Principal.</i>
1. <i>Though</i> he punish me,	<i>yet</i> will I trust in him.
2. <i>Hot as</i> the sun is,	we must go out.

Observe that whenever “*as*” is used in a Concessive or Contrast-ing sense, it is invariably *preceded* by some adjective, adverb, or participle, which stands as Complement to the verb following :—

Hot as the sun is = however hot the sun is.

(g) Comparison—(i.) of equal degrees :—

The same Quality Compared.

He is *as* clever *as* I (am).
 He likes you *as much as* I (like you).
 He likes you *no less than* me (he likes me).

Different Qualities Compared.

The sea is *as* deep *as* the mountains are high.
 He is *as* good *as* he is wise (=He is no less good than he is wise).

(ii.) Of unequal degrees.

The same Quality Compared.

He is more (or less) clever *than* I (am).
 He likes you more (or less) *than* I (like you).

Different Qualities Compared.

The sea is deeper *than* the mountains are high.

He is more wise *than* (he is) good.

He is less good *than* (he is) wise.

But “*than*” is a Preposition, and not a Conjunction in such examples as those given in § 284 (b).

*(h) Extent or Manner:—**Principal.*

Men will reap

This is not true,

He chose the men,

Dependent.

As men sow,

Dependent.

as (=to what extent or in what manner) they sow.

so far as I can find out.

according as they were strong or weak.

Principal.

so will they also reap.

*(i) Time:—**Time simultaneous.**Principal.*

He called at the house,

I will leave the room,

You can hold the horse,

Dependent.

as the clock struck four.

as soon as you open the door.

while I bring the saddle.

*Time before.**Principal.*

He worked very hard,

You have much to do,

He remained a minor,

Dependent.

before he succeeded.

ere you can gain your end.

until he was seventeen years old.

*Time after.**Principal.*

He returned home,

He has been very weak,

Dependent.

after he had done the work.

since he was taken sick.

*Time how long.**Principal.*

The sun will rise,

No one can harm us,

Dependent.

while the world lasts.

so long as we remain friends.

Relative and Interrogative Adverbs.

292. It was explained in § 18 that a Relative adverb is a double part of speech,—a conjunction and adverb combined in one.

The same is true of Interrogative adverbs, when they are used as conjunctions:—

Let me ask you *how* you did this.

There is no difference in *form* between a Relative and an Interrogative adverb. The former qualifies some noun expressed or understood in the Principal sentence. The latter is preceded by some verb that signifies *asking* or *inquiring*.

Relative and Interrogative adverbs, so far as they join sentences, constitute a special class of Subordinative conjunctions.

Time.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
He remained silent,	<i>when</i>	(=as soon as) he heard that.
He feels sad,	<i>whenever</i>	(=at any time in which) he thinks of his lost friend.
My friends inquired	<i>when</i>	I should return.

Concession or Contrast.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
He sold that house,	<i>when</i>	(=although) it was the best he had.

Purpose, Cause, or Reason.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
We never understood	<i>why</i>	(=the reason for which) he acted so.

Place.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
We find flowers,	<i>where</i>	(=in a place in which) we expected only weeds.
We find flowers,	<i>wherever</i>	(=in any places in which) we wander.
He did not tell us	<i>whence</i>	(=the place from which) he had come.

Respect.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
He did not tell us	<i>where</i>	(=in what point) we were wrong.
We cannot perceive	<i>where</i>	(=in what respect) the difference lies.

Manner or Means.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
Let me ask you,	<i>how</i>	(=by what means or in what manner) you did this.

State or Condition.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
Let me ask you,	<i>how</i>	(=in what state of health) you are to-day.

Doubt.

*Principal.**Dependent.*

He wished to know *whether* (or *if*) he was ready to start.

Note.—A Relative adverb can often be substituted for a Relative pronoun, as in the following examples:—

- { Ten o'clock is the hour *when* we must start.
- { Ten o'clock is the hour *at which* we must start.
- { Tell me the reason *why* you left us.
- { Tell me the reason *for which* you left us.
- { This is the house *where* we once lived.
- { This is the house *in which* we once lived.

Insert Subordinative conjunctions or Relative or Interrogative adverbs in the places indicated by —

1. The wind beat against the house, — a part of the roof was blown off.
2. The bulls, — they stood together, were a match for the lion ; but — they separated from each other, they fell an easy prey.
3. Tell me candidly — you like my composition, and — you think it shows signs of future promise.
4. No sooner had he gone to bed — a telegram was brought in.
5. Elephants are not full-grown — they are fifty or sixty years of age.
6. It is of no use for me to shoot, — I am sure to miss the mark.
7. What can be gained in a place — every one is poor ?
8. This dreadful thought pursues me — I go.
9. He was received with respect — he went, and listened to attentively — he began to speak.
10. Remain — thou art, — I return.
11. Be ye wise — serpents, but harmless — doves.
12. The river had risen so high, — we could not cross it even in a boat.
13. Present evils are sometimes less distressing — expected ones.
14. Evil is meant by that man's words, smooth — they are.
15. The more we study the human mind, the less able are we to understand — it came into existence or — it had its source.
16. I am quite as much ashamed — you are.
17. I cannot fear any evil, — thou art near.
18. I will keep it by me night and day, — any harm should come to it.
19. We are glad — he has succeeded so well, — he has thoroughly deserved it.
20. His success is the more creditable, — he had no help from any one, — many offered to help him.
21. At length the moon arose, — it was almost hidden by clouds.
22. They shut up all the shops, — the travellers might not be able to take anything by force.
23. Some men eat — they may live ; others live — they may eat.
24. I am ready to start, — you may desire to do so.

25. The terrified women would have fled more quickly — they did, — they had not been burdened with baggage.

26. We can be happy, — we are poor, — we are contented.

27. I shall die of this disease, — I first die of hunger.

28. You have lied so often, — no one will trust you, even — you speak the truth.

29. I will not rise from my seat, — I am bidden.

30. He was forced to get up, — he liked it — not.

31. On first coming here, — I was quite honest, every one so distrusted me, — for a long time I found it difficult to live.

32. He gave the boy a prize, not — he had actually earned one, but — he might be induced to work harder next term.

33. Agriculture is the foundation of all wealth, — food is raised by this means ; and no one, — clever he may be, can live without food.

34. Past errors may be regretted ; but past moments, — they have once fled, are fled for ever and cannot be recalled.

35. The savages, — they saw the ship approaching their island, believed — it was some great animal moving on the water, — they had never seen a ship before.

36. The peasant grows pale, — he sees a cloud of locusts approach.

37. I do not doubt — you will succeed in time, — only you will persevere and trust — your labours will be at last rewarded.

38. She turned away in disgust, — she was unable to bear the sight any longer.

39. I will pay you down all that you ask, — you sign a receipt on a stamped paper.

40. They were willing to commence work, and begged — they might be ordered to do so, — they were still weak from the recent attack of fever.

41. The robber fled — he heard the shouts ; but he escaped — any one had time to see his face.

42. Seed must be sown — it will germinate ; and flowers must bloom for some time — they can turn into seed.

43. He walked on, — he was so tired — he could walk no farther : then he sat down and waited — food was brought to him.

44. Do — you are told ; and then no one can blame you, — a mistake has been made.

45. Tired — you are, you will finish your journey by twelve o'clock, — you stop nowhere on the road.

CHAPTER IX.—INTERJECTIONS.

293. AN Interjection, properly speaking, is not a Part of Speech, since it has no grammatical connection with any other word or words in the sentence.

It is merely an *exclamatory sound*, thrown into a sentence to denote some strong feeling or emotion (see §§ 13 and 14).^{1th}

Joy.—Hurrah! huzza!

Grief.—Oh! ah! alas! alack!

Amusement.—Ha! ha!

Approval.—Bravo!

Weariness.—Heigh-ho!

Attention.—Lo! hark! hush! hist!

Reproof.—Fie! fie!

Contempt or ridicule { Stuff! bosh! tut-tut!
pooh! pish! pshaw!
tush!

To call some one.—Ho! holloa!

Doubt.—Hum! hem! humph!

294. There are certain phrases which are used like Interjections to express some strong feeling or emotion:—

Ah me, or ay me! Woe is me!

For shame (=alas, on account of shame!).

Alack a day (=ah, lack or loss on the day!).

Hail, all hail (=be hale or healthy!) *Welcome! Well done!*

Good-bye (=God be with ye!). *Adieu! Farewell!*

Bad luck to it! O dear me (=O dear or costly for me!).

Good gracious! Good heavens! Well to be sure! (Surprise.)

295. There are certain moods of verbs and parts of speech which can be used in an exclamatory or Interjectional sense:—

(a) *Noun-Infinitive.*—*To think* that he should have died! (§ 235, e.)

(b) *Subjunctive.*—*Would* that I had gained that prize! (*Wish.*)

(c) *Imperative.*—*Hear! hear!* (*Applause.*)

(d) *Noun.*—*Dreadful sight! Foolish fellow! Fool! Dunce!*

(e) *Adjective* (with some noun understood).—*Strange! Shocking!*

(f) *Adverb.*—*How* very kind of you! *How* wonderful!

(g) *Pronoun.*—*What* a sad thing it is!

(h) *Conjunction.*—*If* I could only see him once more!

296. Sometimes in a rapid or exclamatory sentence an Auxiliary verb with its subject is left out, and only the main verb is expressed:—

Why dream and wait for him longer?—*Longfellow.*

(=Why dost thou or why do we wait for him longer?)

CHAPTER X.—ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

§ 1.—ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

297. A SENTENCE which has only *one* Finite verb (expressed or understood) is called a Simple sentence; as—

Subject.

Finite Verb.

Rain

falls.

The word "Simple" means *single*. The sentence is called *single* (or simple), because it has only *one* Finite verb in it.

298. A sentence that has *more than one* Finite verb expressed or understood is either Compound or Complex.

Thus:—"If I see him to-day, I will invite him to my house." This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *two* Finite verbs, viz. "see" and "will invite."

Again:—"He was well received and (was) listened to with respect, whenever he spoke." This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *three* Finite verbs, viz. "*was*" expressed, "*was*" understood, and "*spoke*."

299. There are four distinct parts or elements of which a Simple sentence can be composed; and the analysis of a sentence consists in *decomposing* it (that is, in analysing or breaking it up) into these several parts:—

§ 1.—The Subject.

§ 2.—Adjuncts to the Subject, *if any*.

§ 3.—The Predicate.

§ 4.—Adjuncts to the Predicate-verb, *if any*.

Of these four elements the first and third (viz. the Subject and the Predicate) are essential to the sentence,—that is, the sentence could not exist without them (see § 3). But the second and fourth (viz. the Adjuncts to the Subject or to the Predicate-verb) are not essential. They are mere additions, which may or may not be present, and could be removed without destroying the sentence.

300. I. The Subject must be either a *Noun* or something that has the force of a *Noun*.

II. The additions or Adjuncts to the Subject (if there are any) must be either *Adjectives* or words that have the force of an *Adjective*. They have hence been called *Attributive Adjuncts*. (They are sometimes also called the *Enlargement of the Subject*.)

III. The Predicate must either be a *Finite verb* or it must contain one.

IV. The additions or Adjuncts to the Predicate-verb (if there are any) must be either *Adverbs* or words that have the force of an *Adverb*. They have hence been called *Adverbial Adjuncts*. (Sometimes also they have been called the *Extension of the Predicate*.)

I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. Predicate-verb.	IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Predicate)
A tiger The horse	fierce tired	was shot will sleep	to-day sorrowfully

The Subject.

301. The Subject can be expressed in several different forms, all of which (as you have already learnt) are either Nouns or words that have the force of a Noun :—

	<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
(a) { <i>A Noun</i> . . .	Rain	is falling.
<i>A Noun understood</i>	The virtuous (men)	will prosper.
(b) <i>A Pronoun</i> . . .	We	must go.
(c) <i>A Noun-Infinitive</i> .	To work	is healthy.
(d) <i>A Gerund</i> . . .	Working	is healthy.
(e) <i>A Phrase</i> . . .	How to do this	is doubtful.

Note 1.—The student should observe that the above list of forms in which the Subject can be expressed tallies with that given in § 22, except that (*f*) a *Clause* has been omitted. A clause, as will be afterwards shown, belongs to Complex and Compound sentences.

Note 2.—When a Noun-Infinitive is used as Subject, it is sometimes placed after the Predicate, and is in apposition to the pronoun “it.”

It is sad to see this = It—viz. to see this—is sad.

Attributive Adjuncts (to the Subject).

302. It has been explained already that all such additions *qualify the Subject*, and hence they are either adjectives or words having the force of an adjective.

Note.—The Definite and Indefinite articles, although properly speaking they belong to the class of Demonstrative adjectives, are not counted as Adjuncts in the analysis of sentences.

303. The principal kinds of Attributive Adjuncts are :—

(a) An Adjective ; as—

A heavy shower fell to-day.

Here *heavy* is something added to the meaning of the Subject “shower,” because it shows what kind of shower is meant.

(b) A Participle or Verbal Adjective ; see § 114 (1) :—

A fertilising shower fell to-day.

Here *fertilising* is something added to the meaning of the Subject, because it shows what kind of work the shower is expected to do.

(c) A Gerundial Infinitive ; see § 114 (5) and § 236 (b) :—

Water to drink is scarce in this place.

Here *to drink* shows the purpose for which the water will be used, and like an adjective it qualifies the noun “water.”

(d) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case ; § 114 (4) :

My son's teacher called here to-day.

My son's is something added to the subject, and has the same effect as an adjective would have in qualifying the noun “teacher.”

- (e) A Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective; § 114 (3):

The *village* watchman fell asleep in the night.
Drinking water is scarce in this place.

- (f) A Noun in Apposition; see § 19:—

Alexander, *the King* of Macedon, conquered Persia.

- (g) A Preposition with its Object; see § 114 (6):—

A man of *virtue* (=a virtuous man) will not tell a lie.

- (h) An Adverb with some Participle omitted; § 114 (2):

The *then* king = the then (reigning) king.

The Predicate.

304. The Predicate must be either a Finite verb or it must contain one. If the verb is of such a nature, that it cannot by itself make a *complete* sense (as required by the definition given in § 1), but has some word or words placed after it for this purpose, any such word or words must be considered parts of the predicate. All possible forms of a Predicate are shown in the following scheme:—

Subject.	PREDICATE.		
	Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.
1. { A hog The snake	grunts. was killed.
2. { My son The thief	became was ordered	a good scholar. to be severely punished.
3. { The gardener The teacher	killed will teach	that poisonous snake. (a) my sons (b) Euclid.
4. They	found	the weary man	sound asleep.

In (1) we have first an Intransitive verb of Complete Predication (see § 181), and then a Transitive verb in the Passive voice. Neither of these requires either an Object or a Complement. So the verb alone makes up the Predicate.

In (2) we have first an Intransitive verb of Incomplete Predication (see § 182), and then a Paetitive verb in the Passive voice (see § 191). Each of these requires a Complement to make the predication complete.

In (3) we have first a Transitive verb with a single Object (see § 175), and then a Transitive verb with a double Object (see § 177).

Each of these requires the Object (single or double) to be expressed, before the predication can be complete.

In (4) we have a Factitive verb in the Active voice, which therefore requires both an Object and a Complement (see § 178).

Note 1.—If the Object or Complement has any qualifying words attached to it, these can be mentioned with it in the same column.

Thus in the complement “a good scholar,” there is no need to make a separate column for the qualifying adjective “good.”

Again, in the complement “to be severely punished,” there is no need of a separate column for the qualifying adverb “severely.”

Again, in stating the object “that poisonous snake,” there is no need of a separate column for the qualifying adjectives “that” and “poisonous.”

Note 2.—An Auxiliary verb may be put in the same column with the Principal verb. Thus in stating “will teach,” we need not give one column for “will” and another for “teach.”

Adverbial Adjuncts (to Verb of Predicate).

305. Anything which qualifies the action of the verb (by saying something about the time, manner, place, cause, means, instrument, purpose, or any other circumstance) is called an Adjunct or addition to the Predicate.

All such additions, *since they qualify the verb*, must be either *adverbs* or words having the force of an adverb.

306. The principal kinds of Adverbial adjuncts are:—

(a) *Adverb*.—He sleeps *soundly*.

(b) *Adverbial Phrase*.—They walked *side by side*.

(c) *Adjective*.—He went away *sad*. He stood *alone*.

(d) *Participle*.—He went away *vexed* and *disappointed*.

(e) *Gerundial Infinitive*.—He came *to see* the horse.

(f) *Adverbial Objective*.—He walked *all day*. He walked *ten miles*.

(g) *Preposition with Object*.—He fell *into a deep well*.

(h) *Absolute Phrase*.—We all started, *he remaining behind*.

Examples of Analysis

1. A darwesh, travelling through Tartary, having arrived at the town of Balkh, entered the king's palace by mistake, thinking it to be a public inn or serai.

2. My father taught all his sons Euclid with much success.

3. Alexander, the King of Macedon, was surnamed the Great after his conquest of the Persian Empire.

4. The man employed for this purpose caught the thief stealing a watch.

5. The merchant, having much property to sell, caused all his goods to be conveyed on camels, there being no railway in that particular part of the country.

6. A gentleman of wealth and position, living in London, some sixty years ago, had a country seat in Kent, some forty miles from the metropolis.

I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. PREDICATE.			IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Verb of Predicate).
		Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.	
1. A Darwesh	(a) travelling through Tartary (b) having arrived at the town of Balkh	entered	the king's palace	..	(a) by mistake (b) thinking it to be a public inn or serai.
2. Father	my	taught	(a) all his sons (b) Euclid	...	with much success.
3. Alexander	the King of Macedonia	was sur- named	...	the Great	after his conquest of the Persian Empire.
4. The man	employed for the purpose	caught	the thief	stealing a watch.	...
5. The merchant	having much property to sell	caused	all his goods	to be conveyed on camels	there being no railway in that particular part of the country.
6. A gentleman	(a) of wealth and position (b) living in London (c) some sixty years ago	had	a country seat	...	(a) in Kent (b) some forty miles from the metro- polis.

Analyse the following Simple sentences according to the model:—

1. A certain fowler, having fixed his net, withdrew to a little distance for the sake of allowing the birds to come.
2. The king of the pigeons was by chance passing through the sky at this time with a troop of followers.
3. He and they caught sight of the rice-grains scattered by the fowler near the net.
4. The king of the pigeons then asked his rice-loving followers this question—
5. Why are rice-grains lying here in this lonely place?
6. We will see into this thing.
7. We must be cautious in our movements.
8. One conceited pigeon among the rest gave them bad advice.
9. He told them to fly down to the rice-grains for the sake of satisfying their hunger.
10. Having flown down and listened to this bad advice, they began to peck up and swallow the grains against the advice of their king.
11. On their beginning to peck they were all caught in the net.
12. Then they blamed their rash and imprudent friend for having given them such bad advice.
13. They ought rather to have blamed themselves for having listened to him.
14. The king now told them what to do.
15. At one moment and with one united movement springing suddenly up fly off with the net.
16. Small things become strong by being united among themselves.
17. Even mad elephants can be held fast by a rope made of thin blades of grass.
18. The pigeons acted on this advice.
19. Making a sudden spring together, they flew up into the air, carrying the net with them.
20. At first the fowler hoped to see them come down again to the earth.
21. But they passed out of sight with the net about them.
22. In this way the fowler lost both his net and the pigeons.
23. The pigeons then said to their king:—"O king, what is the next thing to be done?"
24. The king directed them to a certain place.
25. There his friend, the king of the mice, received them kindly.
26. The king of the mice set them all free by nibbling through the net.
27. Thus the whole troop of pigeons escaped by means of union.
28. All men should profit by this lesson.
29. A chariot will not go on a single wheel.
30. A creeper, having nothing to support it, must fall to the earth.

§ 2.—ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

307. A Compound sentence is one made up of two or more Co-ordinate (*that is, equal or independent*) clauses.

The clauses of which a Compound sentence is made up are joined together by any of the *Co-ordinative Conjunctions* described in § 288. (See "clause" defined in § 5.)

- (1) The sun rose with power, *and* the fog dispersed. (*Cumulative.*)
- (2) Either he must leave the house *or* I (must leave the house). (*Alternative.*)
- (3) He called at my house, *but* I did not see him. (*Adversative.*)
- (4) He came back tired ; *for* he had walked all day. (*Illative.*)

308. Co-ordinate clauses can also be joined together by a Relative pronoun or adverb, provided it is used in a Continuative, and not in a Restrictive sense (see § 163).

He slew all the prisoners, *which* (=and this) was a very barbarous act.

He is clever at planting young trees : *for which* purpose (=and for this purpose) every one is glad to employ him.

He went to London, *where* (=and there) he stayed ten days.

Immense saw-mills have been erected near Rangoon and Moulmain, *which* (=and these towns) are situated at the mouths of the two great rivers of Burma.

309. Contracted Sentences. — Compound sentences often appear in a contracted or shortened form, so as to avoid the needless repetition of the same word :—

(a) When there are *two Predicates to the same Subject*, there is no need to mention the Subject more than once :—

- (1) The sun *rose* and (the sun) *filled* the sky with light.
- (2) He *called* at my house, but (he) *left* soon after.

(b) When there are *two Subjects to the same Predicate*, there is no need to mention the Predicate more than once :—

- (1) *He* as well as *you* is guilty (=He is guilty as well as you are guilty). (*Cumulative.*)
- (2) Either *this man* sinned or his *parents* (sinned). (*Alternative.*)
- (3) He is poor, but (he is) honest. (*Adversative.*)
- (4) He is diligent, and therefore (he is) prosperous. (*Illative.*)

Note 1.—When the two Subjects are joined by "*and*," we cannot always break up the sentence into two separate clauses.

In some instances, such as the following, the two Subjects united by "*and*" are inseparable :—

He and I are great friends.

Youth and experience seldom exist together.

Here we cannot split up either of the above sentences into two separate clauses. Thus we cannot say, "He is a great friend, and I am a great friend"; nor can we say, "Youth seldom exists together, and experience seldom exists together."

Note 2.—When two nouns are so united by the conjunction "*and*" as to denote a single fact, or what is considered to be a single fact, the nouns cannot be separated so to become the Subjects of separate clauses :—

The great *poet-and-scholar* is dead.

Curry-and-rice was his favourite dish.

Note 3.—When two nouns or phrases are connected by the conjunction "*or*," and the "*or*" is *not used in an alternative sense*, they should be considered as constituting a single Subject :—

A tribe or caste is part of a nation.

Here *caste* is used merely as another name for *tribe*.

310. Omission of the Conjunction "*and*."—Alternative conjunctions, Adversative conjunctions, and Illative conjunctions are never omitted. But the Cumulative conjunction "*and*" can be left out, when the aim of the writer is to give a string of sentences, all bearing upon one central fact. Only the last sentence or the last verb should have "*and*" prefixed to it in such a case.

The uses and power of steam have been thus described, one single word standing as subject to no less than twenty-six Finite verbs or predicates :—

What will not the steam-engine do? It propels, elevates, lowers, pumps, drains, pulls, drives, blasts, digs, cuts, saws, planes, bores, blows, forges, hammers, files, polishes, rivets, cards, spins, winds, weaves, coins, prints, *and* does more things than I can think of or enumerate.

Rules and Model.

311. The process of analysing Compound sentences can be described under the following rules :—

(a) Pick out the Finite verb of each clause.

(b) If the Finite verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it.

(c) Pick out the Subject to each Finite verb in succession.

The Clauses.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. PREDICATE.			IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Verb of Predicate).
				Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.	
Example (1)	...	enemy	his greatest	declared	him	to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge	repeatedly.
				declared	him	to be innocent of the fault, etc.	repeatedly.
Example (2)	either	you	nil	must sign	your name	nil	(a) at once (b) on that paper.
				must sign	his name	nil	(a) at once (b) on that paper.
Example (3)	...	He	nil	is	nil	the author of that plan	certainly.
				am not	nil	the author of that plan	certainly.

(d) If the Subject to any Finite verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it.

(e) Then write out each clause with its Subject, Predicate, and Adjuncts (if there are any Adjuncts) in full.

(f) Pick out the Connective word, by which any one clause is joined to any other clause.

- (1) His greatest enemy, as well as his best friends, repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

A. His greatest enemy repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

B. His best friends repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

Connective.:—As well as.

- (2) Either you or your son must sign his name.

A. You must sign your name.

B. Your son must sign his name.

Connectives.:—Either . . . or.

- (3) He, not I, is certainly the author of that plan.

A. He is certainly the author of that plan.

B. I am certainly not the author of that plan.

Connective.:—(*nil*). Here no connective is required.

Compound Sentences to be Analysed.

1. He as well as you is tired of all this work. (*Two clauses.*)
2. Either he or his friend must have opened the door; for no other person had the key. (*Three clauses.*)
3. The Lord knoweth the way of the righteous, but the way of the ungodly shall perish. (*Two clauses.*)
4. He either does not or will not understand the orders given to him. (*Two clauses.*)
5. How to do this or how to do that was never explained to us, and so we did neither. (*Two clauses.*)
6. He acts like a child; for now he laughs, and then he cries; he goes first here, and then there; and no one knows what to do with him. (*Six clauses.*)
7. They found the horse indeed; but it distressed them to see it; for it was lame. (*Three clauses.*)
8. The spaniel frisked and gambolled about the lion, barked at him, would now scrape and tear at his head with his claws, then seize him by the ear and bite and pull; but nothing could aggravate the noble beast. (*Nine clauses.*)
9. The life of a mosquito is brief, but very active; the female lives for two or three weeks, lays its eggs and dies. (*Five clauses.*)

10. At length I to the boy called out ;
 He stopped his horses at the word ;
 But neither cry, nor voice, nor shout,
 Nor aught else like it could be heard. (*Six clauses.*)
11. Sir Ralph the Rover tore his hair,
 And beat his breast in his despair ;
 The waves rush in on every side,
 And the ship sinks down beneath the tide. (*Four clauses.*)
12. The Brahmins or astrologers promise success to the divers ;
 for they expect a liberal gift of pearls as a reward for the happy sense
 of confidence imparted by them to those men. (*Two clauses.*)
13. At Venice he went with the greatest cheerfulness into the sick-
 house, where he remained as usual for forty days, and thus exposed
 his life for the sake of his fellow-creatures. (*Three clauses.*)

§ 3.—ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

312. A **Complex sentence** consists of a *Principal clause* with one or more *Subordinate clauses*.

The clause which is not dependent on any other clause is called the **Principal clause**.

Note.—The Principal clause may be distinguished from the dependent clauses by the fact that it is not introduced by a conjunction or any other kind of connective word.

313. **Subordinate and Co-ordinate Clauses.**—A Subordinate clause is a *component part* of some other clause, in which it does the work (without possessing the form) of a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb.

A Co-ordinate clause is not a component part of any other clause, but forms a *complete grammatical whole* by itself.

314. There are three kinds of Subordinate clauses,—the Noun-Clause, the Adjective-Clause, and the Adverb-Clause: and these are defined as follows:—

I. A *Noun-Clause* is one which does the work of a Noun in relation to some word in some other clause.

II. An *Adjective-Clause* is one which does the work of an Adjective in relation to some word in some other clause.

III. An *Adverb-Clause* is one which does the work of an Adverb in relation to some word in some other clause.

I. The Noun-Clause.

315. There are three kinds of connectives, by which a Noun-Clause can be introduced:

(1) The Conjunction "*that*" used in a merely Introductory sense (see § 291, *a*):—

We did not know *that* he would leave us so soon.

(2) A Relative or Interrogative adverb, provided that no Antecedent is expressed:—

Where he is going is not known to any one. (*Relat.*)

Let us inquire *whether* he will go to-day. (*Interrog.*)

Note.—The conjunction "*if*" can be used for "*whether*" as an Interrogative adverb—

Let us inquire *if* (= *whether*) he will go to-day.

(3) A Relative or Interrogative pronoun, provided that no Antecedent is expressed:—

Who steals my purse steals trash. (*Relat.*)

I beg to inquire *who* came here to-day. (*Interrog.*)

316. The Noun-Clause, since it does the work of a Noun, can be—

(a) The Subject to a Verb.

(b) The Object to a Verb.

(c) The Object to a Preposition.

(d) The Complement to a Verb.

(e) In Apposition to a Noun.

(a) Subject to a Verb; see § 22 (*f*):—

Where he is going is not known to any one.

That he will come back soon is certain.

Whom the gods love die young.—*Proverb.*

(b) Object to a Verb; see § 24 (*f*):—

He promised *that he would soon pay back the debt.*

I shall be glad to know *when he will pay it.*

Perceiving *what a mistake he had made*, he yielded.

(c) Object to a Preposition; see § 273:—

My success in future depends upon *who is placed over me.*

This book will sell for *what it is worth.*

Except *that he speaks too fast* he is an excellent teacher.

(d) Complement to a Verb; see § 178 and § 182:—

This is exactly *what I expected.*

My question was *whether there was any hope of his recovery.*

This is *what no one can understand.*

(e) In Apposition to a Noun ; see § 20 :—

The news *that he intended to come* gave us much pleasure.
 The report *that he had gone* is unknown to me.

Here the clause "that he intended to come" is in apposition to the noun "news." This is the reason why the conjunction "*that*" is said to signify apposition (§ 291, a).

317. The conjunction "*that*" (in the sense of apposition) is often left out after a *verb*, provided that the noun with which the clause is in apposition is not expressed :—

It seems (that) *he is not clever*.

N.B.—The conjunction "*that*" is never left out *when the noun is expressed* :—

The fact *he is not clever* gives us much pain.

This is quite inadmissible. Since the noun "fact" is expressed, the appositional clause "he is not clever" must be introduced by the conjunction "*that*."

318. A sentence consisting of the very words spoken by any one may be the Subject or Object to a verb, and must therefore be considered as an example of a Noun-Clause :—

"I have seen this man before," was the only thing that he said.
 The sleeper started up from his bed, shouting, "I am bitten."

Examples of the Noun-Clause.

Pick out the Noun-Clause and say whether it is the Subject to some Verb, or the Object to some Verb, or the Object to some Preposition, or the Complement to some Verb, or in Apposition to some noun expressed. Supply the Conjunction "that" wherever it has been left out :—

1. No one knows when he will come, or whether he will come at all, or whether he is even alive.
2. How this came to pass is not known to any one.
3. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.
4. It is quite evident rain will fall to-day.
5. The Equator shows where days and nights are of equal length.
6. What is one man's meat is another man's poison.
7. You must know that the air is never quite at rest.
8. I think I shall never clearly understand this.
9. We heard the school would open in ten days' time.
10. The name "Volcano" indicates the belief of the Ancient Greeks, that the burning hills of the Mediterranean were the workshops of the divine blacksmith, Vulcan.

11. Even a feather shows which way the wind is blowing.
12. Whatever faculty man has is improved by use.
13. The fool hath said in his heart, "There is no God."
14. "Know thyself," was the advice given us by a Greek sage.
15. He did not know that his father had been shot.
16. The fact that you have not signed your name to a letter shows that you lack moral courage.
17. It will be easily understood how useful even the simplest weapons were to the first dwellers on the earth.
18. The question first occurring to the mind of a savage is how is fire to be made.
19. Common sense soon taught him that fire could be produced by rubbing two sticks together.
20. In chipping their flint weapons men must have seen that fire occasionally flashed out.
21. We learn from travellers that savages can produce fire in a few seconds.
22. He shouted out to the thief, "Leave this house."
23. We cannot rely on what he says.
24. It is quite evident you have made a mistake.
25. It was very unfortunate that you were taken ill.
26. He was a man of fine character except that he was rather timid.

II. *The Adjective-Clause.*

319. An Adjective-Clause does the work of an Adjective to some noun or pronoun in some other clause.

The only kind of connective word by which an Adjective-Clause can be introduced is a Relative pronoun or Relative adverb, and then only when the Relative is used in a Restrictive sense (see § 163).

If the Relative is used in a Continuative sense, the sentence is Compound, and not Complex (see § 308).

1. Among the men, *who came here to-day*, not one turned out to be honest.

Here the italicised clause qualifies or restricts "*men*."

2. We found the wolf lying dead in the very place *where* (= *in which*) *it was shot*.

Here the italicised clause qualifies or restricts "*place*."

320. The Relative pronoun, provided it would be in the Objective case, and provided its sense is Restrictive, and not Continuative (§ 163), is often left out (see § 179).

The food he needed (= *which* or *that* he needed) was not procured without a great deal of trouble.

Pick out the Adjective-Clause or Clauses in each of the following examples, and point out the noun or pronoun qualified by it in some other clause. If the Relative pronoun has been omitted anywhere, supply it:—

1. Man has the power of making instruments, which bring into view stars, whose light has taken a thousand years to reach the earth.
2. The first thing that man needed was some sharp-edged tool.
3. The exact time when the theft was committed was never found out.
4. The man by whom the theft was committed has been caught.
5. The house we lived in has fallen down.
6. This is the same story that I heard ten years ago.
7. It's an ill wind that blows no one any good.
8. This is not such a book as I should have chosen.
9. He made his living by the presents he received from the men he served.
10. All that glitters is not gold.
11. In ponds from which but a week before the wind blew clouds of dust, men now catch the re-animated fish.
12. A river is joined at places by tributaries that swell its waters.
13. Of what use is a knowledge of books to him who fails to practise virtue?
14. Fortune selects him for her lord, who reflects before acting.
15. Springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil.
16. Nuncoomar prepared to die with that quiet fortitude with which the Bengalee, so backward, as a rule, in personal conflict, often encounters calamities for which there is no remedy.
17. I have seen the house where Shakspeare was born.
18. The plan you acted on has answered well.
19. They accepted every plan we proposed.
20. Surely the story you are telling me is not true.
21. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.
22. The night is long that never finds the day.
23. He travelled home by the way his father showed him.
24. There are times when every one feels a little sad.
25. Such men as are false to their friends should always be avoided.
26. I forgot to tell you the time when I shall return.

III. *The Adverb-Clause.*

321. An Adverb-Clause does the work of an Adverb to some verb, adjective, or adverb in some other clause.

An Adverb-Clause can be introduced by any of the *Subordinative* conjunctions, excepting the conjunction "*that*," when it is used in the sense of Apposition. (See § 315.)

<i>Principal Clause.</i>	<i>Adverb-Clause.</i>	<i>Subord. Conjunction.</i>
He will succeed,	<i>because</i> he works hard . . .	<i>Cause.</i>
He worked so hard,	<i>that</i> he was quite tired . . .	<i>Effect.</i>
He took medicine,	<i>that</i> he might get well . . .	<i>Purpose.</i>
I will do this,	<i>if</i> I am allowed . . .	<i>Condition.</i>
He is honest,	<i>although</i> he is poor . . .	<i>Contrast.</i>
He likes you <i>more</i>	<i>than</i> (he likes) me . . .	<i>Comparison.</i>
Men will reap	<i>as</i> they sow . . .	<i>Extent or Manner.</i>
The sun will rise,	<i>so long as</i> the world lasts . . .	<i>Time.</i>

Note.—The Subordinative conjunctions have been described and enumerated in § 291. Amongst these the student should not forget to include the special class of Subordinative connectives, which in § 292 are described and enumerated under the name of Relative and Interrogative adverbs.

322. After the conjunctions *though*, *when*, *unless*, *till*, *if*, *whether*—*or*, and *while*, the Predicate-verb “to be” is often understood :—

- { Though much alarmed at the news, he did not lose all hope.
 - { Though *he was* much alarmed, etc., he did not lose all hope.
 - { He sprained his foot, while walking in the dark.
 - { He sprained his foot, while *he was* walking in the dark.
 - { His opinion, whether right or wrong, does not concern me.
 - { His opinion, whether *it is* right or wrong, does not concern me.
- This must be kept, till (*it is*) called for.

323. When an Adverb-Clause is introduced by “*than*,” its Predicate-verb is not always expressed, but can be understood or borrowed from the clause on which it depends :—

- He loves you better than (he loves) me.
- He loves you better than I (love you).

324. The Relative “*who*” or “*which*” makes an Adverb-Clause, whenever it is substituted for a Subordinative conjunction signifying Cause or Purpose. (See § 163, *Note*.)

Cause.—They should pardon my son, *who* (= *because he*) has never committed such a fault before.

Purpose.—A man was sent, *who* should deliver (= *that he might deliver*) the message.

Note.—The student can now therefore take note that four different kinds of clauses can be introduced by the Relative “*who*” or “*which*” :—(1) A *Co-ordinate Clause*, where the Relative is used in a **Continuative** sense; see § 163 and § 308. This belongs to Compound sentences. (2) A *Noun-Clause*, where no Antecedent to the Relative is expressed; see § 315. This belongs to Complex sentences. (3) An *Adjective-Clause*, where the Relative is used in a **Restrictive** sense; see § 163 and § 319. This belongs to Complex sentences. (4) An *Adverb-Clause*, where the Relative is used in the sense of Cause or Purpose. This also belongs to Complex sentences.

Pick out the Adverb-Clause or Clauses in the following. Show what word or phrase is qualified by every such clause, and what Adverbial relation is denoted thereby:—

1. He will succeed, because he has worked hard.
2. Men engage in some work, that they may earn a living.
3. He threatened to beat him, unless he confessed.
4. He was always honest, though he was poor.
5. This is not true, so far as I can tell.
6. He likes you as much as I do.
7. He tried for a long time before he succeeded.
8. Let us go to bed, as it is now late.
9. He walked with care, lest he should stumble.
10. I agree to this, provided you sign your name.
11. Though he punish me, yet will I trust in him.
12. He returned home, after he had finished the work.
13. Prove a friend, before you trust him.
14. When the cat's away, the mice will play.
15. He persevered so steadily, that he succeeded at last.
16. I will let off this man, who has been well punished already.
17. He sees very well, considering that he is sixty years of age.
18. I gave him a prize, that he might work harder next year.
19. They deserted their former associate, who had become poor and unfortunate.
20. As the tree falls, so will it lie.
21. Ever since we left the house, it has not ceased raining.
22. I would be glad to lend you that money, if I had as much in my own pocket.
23. Murder, though it have no tongue, will yet speak.
24. Unless you leave the house at once, I will send for a policeman.
25. A jackal, while prowling about the suburbs of a town, slipped into an indigo tank; and not being able to get out he laid himself down, so that he might be taken for dead.
26. The owner of the tank, when he beheld what seemed to be a dead jackal, carried the body into the jungle and there flung it down.
27. This one fact, if closely examined, proves the man to be guilty.
28. He is an honest man, though poor; and industrious, though old and rather infirm.
29. Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven.—*Milton*.
30. If the trunk of a tree, when young and pliable, is not made to grow straight, it cannot be straightened afterwards, when old and stiff.
31. A rabbit cannot run so swiftly as a hare; but it is more skilful than a hare in digging the ground and boring holes under the earth.
32. The wild grey rabbit is not so large as the tame rabbit kept in a cage.

Example of a mixed sentence analysed.

The governor of the town, who was present, called out with a loud voice and ordered Androcles to explain how a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden, that it became converted into a harmless animal, which preferred rather to spare its victim than to devour him.

The Clause.	Kind of Clause.	Con- nective.	I. Subject.	II. Attrib- utive Ad- juncts (to Subject).	III. PREDICATE.			IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Verb of Predicate).
					Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.	
A. The governor of the town cried out with a loud voice,	Principal Clause.	..	the gov- ernor	of the town	cried out	<i>nil</i>	<i>nil</i>	with a loud voice,
B. Who was present,	Co-ordinate to A. (§ 308).	who	who	<i>nil</i>	was	<i>nil</i>	present,	<i>nil</i>
C. And ordered Androcles to explain	Co-ordinate to A.	and	(the gov- ernor)	<i>nil</i>	ordered	Androcles	to explain	<i>nil</i>
D. How a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden,	Noun-Clause to C. (explain).	how	a beast	savage	could have forgotten	its innate disposition	<i>nil</i>	(a) so (b) all of a sudden,
E. That it became converted into a harmless animal,	Adverb-Clause to D. (so).	that	it	<i>nil</i>	became	<i>nil</i>	converted into a harmless animal,	<i>nil</i>
F. Which preferred rather to spare its victim	Adject.-Clause to E. (animal).	which	which	<i>nil</i>	preferred	to spare its victim	<i>nil</i>	rather
G. Than devour him.	Adverb-Clause to F. (rather).	than	(it)	<i>nil</i>	(preferred)	to devour him.	<i>nil</i>	<i>nil</i>

Miscellaneous Examples for Analysis.

1. Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the wicked, nor standeth in the way of sinners, nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful. (*Four clauses.*)

2. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt when I sank into the water. (*Three clauses.*)

3. A blind man, carrying a lantern in his hand and a piteher on his shoulder, was walking along one night, when he was met by a thoughtless young fellow, who laughed at him and said, "O fool! day and night must be alike to you: of what use can this lamp be to you?" (*Six clauses.*)

4. If man had had a skin thickly covered with hair or wool, as an ape or sheep has, he could not have moved from one climate to another with comfort; and so he is made naked, but not without the power of improving his condition, wherever he may be. (*Seven clauses.*)

5. Even as the driver checks a restive steed, so do thou, if thou art wise, restrain thy passion, which, if it runs wild, will hurry thee away. (*Five clauses.*)

6. Sometimes you may trace a river to a definite spring; but you very soon assure yourself that such springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil, and which through some orifice, that it has found or formed, comes to the light of day. (*Seven clauses.*)

7. If you put the end of an iron rod in the fire and hold it there, you do something more than heat that end; for you heat the whole of it up to the end that you hold in your hand. (*Five clauses.*)

8. In his seventieth year Louis Carnaro had a fall by which he broke an arm and a leg. (*Two clauses.*)

With some men at that time of life so great a hurt would have been difficult to cure or might even have occasioned death; but with Carnaro, whose body was in the soundest condition, it was cured in a very short time. (*Four clauses.*)

9. Whoso keepeth the law is a wise son; but he that is a companion of riotous men shameth his father. (*Four clauses.*)

10. They expected that the king would either treat the matter as a pleasant jest or threaten the insolent darwesh with punishment; but to their surprise he was neither amused nor angry, but seriously attentive to the words of the darwesh. (*Six clauses.*)

11. Sir Isaac Newton, after deep meditation, discovered that there was a law in nature called attraction, by virtue of which every partiele of matter that the world is composed of draws toward itself every other partiele of matter with a force which is proportionate to its mass and distance. (*Five clauses.*)

12. After his schooling was finished his father, desiring him to be a merchant like himself, gave him a ship freighted with various sorts of merchandise, so that he might go and trade about the world and grow rich, and become a help to his parents, who were now advanced in age. (*Seven clauses.*)

13. The rootlets at the ends of these fibres strike into the ground.

and when they have become well fixed in the earth, the sap which previously was flowing downwards changes its direction and flows upwards. (*Five clauses.*)

14. Stern Daughter of the voice of God,
 O Duty, if that name thou love,
 Who art a light to guide, a rod
 To check the erring, and reprove,—
 Thou who art victory and law,
 When empty terrors overawe,—
 From vain temptations dost set free
 And calm'st the weary strife of frail humanity !
 There are who ask not if thine eye
 Be on them, who in love and truth,
 Where no misgiving is, rely
 Upon the genial sense of youth. (*Twelve clauses.*)

Amf

CHAPTER XI.

THE SAME WORD USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

- A. *Indef. Article.* The sportsman shot *a* tiger.
Prep. He has gone *a*-hunting.
- All. *Adj. of Quantity.* He ate *all* the bread.
Indef. Num. Adj. We must *all* die some day.
Adj. used as Noun. We lost our *all* on that day.
Adv. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow.
- Any. *Adj. of Quantity.* Have you *any* bread ?
Adv. of Qu. We must stop and rest before going *any* farther.
Num. Adjective. Did you bring *any* loaves ?
Dem. Adjective. Take *any* book that you like best.
- As. (a) *Relative pronoun* :—
 He is not such a fool *as* he looks.
 As many men *as* came were caught.
 Yours is not the same book *as* mine.
- (b) *Relative adverb* (or subordinative conjunction) :—
Time. He trembled *as* (at what time) he spoke.
Manner. Do not act *as* (in what manner) he did.
Extent. { He is not as (to that extent) clever *as* (to what extent) you are.
 Hot *as* (to whatever extent) the sun is (= however hot the sun is), we must go out in it.
- Reason.* The air is now cool, *as* (for what reason or for the reason that) the rain has fallen.
- (c) *In Elliptical Phrases* :—all of these imply “extent.”
 I condemn you *as* a judge (to what extent or so far as I am a judge), but *as* a man (to what extent I am a man), I pity you.

I will inquire again *as to* (to what extent the question relates to) that matter.

As regards this journey (to what extent the question regards this journey), we can now decide nothing.

Better. *Comp. Adj.* My book is a *better* one than yours.

Comp. Adv. You are working *better* to-day.

Adj. used as Noun. Do not despise your *bettors*.

Both. *Def. Num. Adj.* *Both* the men have arrived.

Conj. Co-ord. He is *both* a fool and a knave.

But. *Adv.* There is *but* (only) one man present.

Prep. Who could have done this *but* (except) him?

I cannot *but* believe that you are lost. (I cannot believe anything *except* that, etc.)

Conj. Co-ord. He is a man of common sense, *but* not learned in books.

Conj. Subord. There was no one present, *but* (he) pitied (= who did not pity) the lame horse. (Here the "but" has the force of a Relative + Negative, § 162.)

Perdition catch my soul, *but* I love thee.—
Shakspeare. (May perdition catch my soul, *if* I do not love thee.)

Either. *Distrib. Adj.* He is ruined in *either* case.

Conj. Co-ord. He is *either* a fool or a knave.

Else. *Adv.* We could not catch any one *else*.

Conj. Co-ord. He has some real sorrow; *else* he would not weep as he does.

Enough. *Adj. of Quantity.* He has eaten *enough* bread.

Adj. of Number. We have *enough* loaves.

Adj. used as Noun. He had *enough* to do.

Half. *Adj. of Quantity.* *Half* measures do not succeed.

Adj. used as Noun. One *half* of his task is now done.

Adv. of Quantity. He was *half* dead with fear.

Little. *Adj. of Quality.* A *little* blow may give much pain.

Adj. of Quantity. He has eaten a *little* bread.

Adv. of Quantity. Let us wait here a *little*.

Adj. used as Noun. Man wants but *little* here below.

More. *Adj. of Quantity.* He eats *more* bread than you.

Adj. used as Noun. *More* is done than was expected.

Adv. of Quantity. I like him *more* than (I like) you.

Adj. of Number. *More* men came to-day than yesterday.

Adv. of Number. I saw him once *more*.

Much. *Adj. of Quantity.* He has wasted *much* time.

Adv. of Quantity. I am *much* pleased with your son.

Adj. used as Noun. You will not get *much* from me.

Neither. *Adj. Distrib.* I agree with *neither* side.—

Conj. Co-ord. *Neither* you nor I can do that.

Near. *Adv.* Stand *near*, while I speak to you.

Prep. There is a fine tree *near* our house.

Adj. He is a *near* relative of mine.

- Needs.** *Verb.* The earth is very dry and *needs* rain.
Adv. He must *needs* know the reason of this, § 266.
Noun. Our *needs* or wants are few.
- One.** *Def. Num. Adj.* There is but *one* rupee left.
Indef. Dem. Pron. *One* is apt to waste *one's* time.
Def. Dem. Pron. Your horse is white; mine is a black *one*.
- Only.** *Adj.* The *only* dog I had was stolen.
Adv. I heard of this *only* yesterday.
Conj. Co-ord. Do what you like; *only* (=but whatever you do) keep silence.
- Round.** *Adj.* A square thing does not fit into a *round* hole.
Prep. Draw a circle *round* a given centre.
Adv. The flies are flying *round* and *round*.
Verb. Gama was the first to *round* the Cape of Good Hope.
Noun. Men must go their daily *round* of duty.
- Since.** *Prep.* I have not seen him *since* Monday last.
Adv. I took this house four weeks *since*.
Conj. Subord. We must trust you, *since* you are speaking in earnest.
- Such.** *Def. Dem. Adj.* He is not *such* a man as I expected.
Indef. Dem. Adj. He came to me on *such* a day.
Def. Dem. Pron. You are a coward; I am not *such*.
- That.** *Def. Dem. Adj.* I am no admirer of *that* book.
Def. Dem. Pron. The light of the sun is brighter than *that* of the moon.
Relat. Pron. The book *that* you gave me is lost.
- Conj.* { *Effect.* He aimed so well *that* he hit the mark.
Apposit. He heard *that* you had come.
Purpose. We must eat *that* we may live.
- Then.** *Adv. of Time.* He was better *then* than he is now.
Conj. Co-ord. I see, *then*, we ought to start at once.
- Than.** *Conj. Subord.* I like this more *than* (I like) that.
Prep. { These workmen, *than* whom I have never seen men
more industrious, have left me.
He was fond of any drink other *than* wine.
- The.** *Def. Article.* The ass is a dull animal.
Rel. Adv. of Quantity. The more, the merrier.
Simple Adv. of Quantity. He worked *the* harder, because he had hopes of success.
- Too.** *Adv. of Quantity.* He is *too* fond of play.
Conj. Co-ord. We *too* must expect to die some day.
- Well.** *Adv. of Quality.* He has done the work very *well*.
Adv. used as Noun. Leave *well* alone.
Conj. Co-ord. He has finished his work in time; *well*, I did not expect it of such a lazy man.
- What.** *Inter. Pron.* *What* did you say? *What* house is that?
Compound. Rel. Pron. I do not know *what* you mean, § 159.
Ellipt. Adv. *What* with illness and losses, the poor man is almost ruined.
- Yet.** *Conj. Co-ord.* I have called; *yet* no one answers.
Adv. of Time. You may *yet* (= even now, still) find him.

CHAPTER XII.—COMMON ERRORS CORRECTED.

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF NOUNS.

325. The Possessive case-ending is seldom used except in nouns denoting persons, other living things, or personified things (see § 64).

Erroneous.

Climb up the *house's* roof.
Calcutta is *Bengal's* seaport.
Let us pick the *garden's* fruit.
Beware of *life's* shortness.
Look at this *letter's* signature.
I heard the *multitude's* shout.
He is the *flock's* shepherd.
Go out by the *house's* door.

Corrected.

Climb up the roof of the *house*.
Calcutta is the seaport of *Bengal*.
Let us pick the fruit of the *garden*.
Beware of the shortness of *life*.
Look at the signature to this *letter*.
I heard the shout of the *multitude*.
He is the shepherd of the *flock*.
Go out by the door of the *house*.

326. A Material Noun (unless it can be used as a Common noun) has no Plural number (see § 69).

Erroneous.

He had a bag of *rices*.
I picked up ten *rices*.
There are many *dirts* on the wall.
He sent me many *foods*.
We want more *fuels* than that.
He drank *two milks*.

Corrected.

He had a bag of *rice*.
I picked up ten *grains* of rice.
There are many *spots* of dirt on the wall.
He sent me many *kinds* of food.
We want more *fuel* than that.
He drank *two cups* of milk; or he drank *milk twice*.

Ten *inks* are needed for the class.

The cow eats *grasses* all day.
The rain has left many *waters*.

Many *golds* were found there.

Ten *inkstands* are needed for the class.

The cow eats *grass* all day.
The rain has left many *pools* of water.

Many *nuggets* (lumps) of gold were found there.

327. An Abstract noun (unless it can be used as a Common noun) has no Plural number (see § 69).

Erroneous.

He did many *mischiefs*.
He gave me many *advices*.
Leave off such *stupidities*.
He did many foolish *behaviours*.
He learnt three *poetries* by heart.
He was fond of bad *companics*.

Corrected.

He did many *acts* of mischief.
He gave me many *pieces* of advice.
Leave off such *acts* of stupidity.
He did many foolish *actions*.
He learnt three *pieces* of poetry by heart.
He was fond of bad *company* or bad *companions*.

Erroneous.

He has had *two sleeps* to-day.
 He gave me a great deal of *troubles*.

You have many *choices*.

He possesses many *skills*.

Corrected.

He has *slept twice* to-day.
 He gave me a great deal of *trouble*.

You have many *things to choose from*.

He possesses many *kinds of skill*.

✕ 328. There are some nouns which are Singular in form, but Plural in sense (see § 77).

Erroneous.

These cattles are mine.
 This *cattle* is mine.
 The vermin *is* swarming.
 The *swines* are lying down.
These peoples have gone.

Corrected.

These cattle are mine.
 This *cow* is mine.
 The vermin *are* swarming.
 The *swine* are lying down.
These people have gone.

✕ 329. There are some nouns which either have no Plural, or use it in a special sense (see § 78).

Erroneous.

He gave me many *abuses*.
 Give me all the *informations* that you have received.
 This room has ten *furnitures*.

Corrected.

He gave me many *words of abuse*.
 Give me all the *items of information* that you have received.
 This room has ten *pieces of furniture*.

They had three *offsprings*.
 Have you learnt the *alphabets*?

They had three *children*.
 Have you learnt the *letters of the alphabet*?

✕ 330. The Singular number can sometimes be used for the Plural to denote some specific quantity (see § 80).

Erroneous.

He gave me a *ten-rupees* note.
 I shall bring a *three-feet* rule.
 He had forty *heads* of cattle.
 This is an *eight-days* clock.
 I like a *six-years-old* horse.

Corrected.

He gave me a *ten-rupee* note.
 I shall bring a *three-foot* rule.
 He had forty *head* of cattle.
 This is an *eight-day* clock.
 I like a *six-year-old* horse.

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

331. Some, any.—On the different uses of these two adjectives, see § 93.

Erroneous.

He has procured *any* bread.
 He has *not* procured *some* bread.
 He has procured *no any* bread.

Corrected.

He has procured *some* bread.
 He has *not* procured *any* bread.
 He has procured *no* bread, or he has *not* procured *any* bread.
 Bring me *some* water to drink.

Bring me *any* water to drink.

332. Little, a little, the little.—On the different uses of these three expressions, see § 94.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
<i>Little</i> money is better than none.	<i>A little</i> money is better than none.
He was sorry to find that he had <i>a little</i> money.	He was sorry to find that he had <i>little</i> money.
He spent <i>a little</i> money that he had.	He spent <i>the little</i> money that he had.
I am glad I have <i>little</i> time left.	I am glad I have <i>a little</i> time left.

333. Few, a few, the few.—On the different uses of these three expressions, see § 99.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
He was glad to have <i>few</i> books.	He was glad to have <i>a few</i> books.
I was sorry to have <i>a few</i> rupees.	I was sorry to have <i>few</i> rupees.
He read <i>a few</i> books that he had.	He read <i>the few</i> books that he had.
I wish you would stay here <i>few</i> days.	I wish you would stay here <i>a few</i> days.
<i>Few</i> remarks from him will not be out of place.	<i>A few</i> remarks from him will not be out of place.

334. The preposition “of” is omitted after certain Collective Numeral nouns (see §§ 100, 101).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I have <i>a dozen of</i> sheep.	I have <i>a dozen</i> sheep.
He lived almost <i>a hundred of</i> years.	He lived almost <i>a hundred</i> years.
A ship will not last <i>a thousand of</i> years.	A ship will not last <i>a thousand</i> years.
Few men have <i>a million of</i> pounds.	Few men have <i>a million</i> pounds.

335. A, an.—On the uses of these articles before certain vowels and consonants, see § 104.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
A clock is <i>an</i> useful thing.	A clock is <i>a</i> useful thing.
He is <i>an</i> European.	He is <i>a</i> European.
He wrote <i>a</i> historical book.	He wrote <i>an</i> historical book.
He is <i>an</i> one-eyed man.	He is <i>a</i> one-eyed man.

336. Each, every, etc.—On the uses of Distributive adjectives, see § 110.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
They surrounded him on every <i>sides</i> .	They surrounded him on every <i>side</i> .
Of the two men lying in hospital, <i>every one</i> is recovering.	Of the two men lying in hospital, <i>each</i> is recovering.
The two men struck <i>one another</i> .	The two men struck <i>each other</i> .
They all helped <i>each other</i> .	They all helped <i>one another</i> .

337. On the use of the Comparative degree of adjectives, see § 135.

Erroneous.

He is *tall* than you.
He is taller *from* you.
He is the *tallest* of the two.
This stick is *more longer than* that.

This boy is more clever than *all the* boys.

This book is *more preferable than* that.

This book is easier *of* that.

Corrected.

He is *taller* than you.
He is taller *than* you.
He is the *taller* of the two.
This stick ~~is~~ *longer* than that.

This boy is more clever than *all the other* boys.

This book is *preferable to* that.

This book is easier *than* that.

338. After Latin Comparatives, "to" is used instead of "than" (see § 137).

Erroneous.

His strength is superior *than* mine.

Your height is inferior *than* mine.

This man is senior *than* that.

This event is prior *than* that.

Your son is junior *than* mine.

Corrected.

His strength is superior *to* mine.

Your height is inferior *to* mine.

This man is senior *to* that.

This event is prior *to* that.

Your son is junior *to* mine.

339. The Superlative degree of adjectives (see § 136).

Erroneous.

This road is the *most shortest* of all.

This road is shorter than *all of* them.

Iron is the *useful* metal *than* all.

That was *unkindest* cut of all.

He gained a *first* prize.

Corrected.

This road is the *shortest* of all.

This road is shorter than *all the others*.

Iron is the *most useful of* all metals.

That was *the unkindest* cut of all.

He gained *the first* prize.

N.B.—The Definite article "*the*" should always be used before the Superlative degree; the Indefinite should never be used.

340. The Superlative degree must not be used as if it were equivalent to the Positive degree preceded by "*very*."

Erroneous.

He wrote a *best* book.

He is a *worst* scholar.

This is a *happiest* world after all.

You have a *clearest* style of writing.

Corrected.

He wrote a *very good* book.

He is a *very bad* scholar.

This is a *very happy* world after all.

You have a *very clear* style of writing.

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF ARTICLES.

341. As a general rule a Common noun in the *Singular* number should have an Article, either the Definite or the Indefinite, placed before it (see § 115).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I saw <i>dog</i> coming towards me.	I saw <i>a dog</i> or <i>the dog</i> coming towards me.
He shot large <i>tiger</i> to-day.	He shot <i>a large tiger</i> to-day.
He ordered <i>servant</i> to leave room.	He ordered <i>the servant</i> to leave <i>the room</i> .
Dead <i>man</i> tells no tales.	<i>A</i> dead <i>man</i> tells no tales.
Live <i>ass</i> is better than dead <i>lion</i> .	<i>A</i> live <i>ass</i> is better than <i>a</i> dead <i>lion</i> .
India is large <i>peninsula</i> .	India is <i>a</i> large <i>peninsula</i> .

342. When a Common noun is in the *Plural* number, the Definite article should not be placed before it, unless the speaker or writer desires to particularise the object named (see § 116).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
<i>The storks</i> gobble up frogs.	<i>Storks</i> gobble up frogs.
<i>The men</i> are rational beings.	<i>Men</i> are rational beings.
We cannot easily live without <i>the houses</i> .	We cannot easily live without <i>houses</i> .
Oil is produced from <i>the olives</i> .	Oil is produced from <i>olives</i> .
Language consists of <i>the words</i> .	Language consists of <i>words</i> .
All <i>the men</i> are mortal.	All <i>men</i> are mortal.

343. No Article, either Definite or Indefinite, is placed before a Material noun (see § 117).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
You should use <i>a seasoned timber</i> for making a door.	You should use seasoned <i>timber</i> for making a door.
Most men are fond of <i>the bread</i> .	Most men are fond of <i>bread</i> .
<i>The honey</i> is made by bees.	<i>Honey</i> is made by bees.
You can stick this down with <i>a gum</i> .	You can stick this down with <i>gum</i> .
<i>The charcoal</i> throws out much heat.	<i>Charcoal</i> throws out much heat.
Some men never eat <i>a flesh</i> .	Some men never eat <i>flesh</i> .

344. But when a Material noun is used as a Common noun in the Singular number (see § 117), it must have an article placed before it.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I am fond of strolling in <i>wood</i> .	I am fond of strolling in <i>the wood</i> .
<i>Slate</i> is used for writing on.	<i>A slate</i> is used for writing on.
Hand me <i>potato</i> .	Hand me <i>a potato</i> .
<i>Fire</i> broke out in our village.	<i>A fire</i> broke out in our village.
Do not lose precious <i>stone</i> .	Do not lose <i>the precious stone</i> .

345. An article is not placed before an Abstract noun, when the noun is used in a perfectly general sense (see § 117).

Erroneous.

The envy is an evil passion.
I am fond of *a walking* in the fields.
He is not fond of *the mathematics*.
He always practised *the justice*.
The speech is one of our best faculties.

Corrected.

Envy is an evil passion.
I am fond of *walking* in the fields.
He is not fond of *mathematics*.
He always practised *justice*.
Speech is one of our best faculties.

346. But the Definite article is placed before an Abstract noun, when it is necessary to particularise the quality, state, or action denoted.

Erroneous.

Envy of malicious persons is cruel.
He is not fond of *mathematics* taught in that book.
Justice of that man is well known.
He understands *grammar* taught in that book.
Sleep of a wearied man is sound.
Height of a man is seldom more than six feet.

Corrected.

The envy of malicious persons is cruel.
He is not fond of *the mathematics* taught in that book.
The justice of that man is well known.
He understands *the grammar* taught in that book.
The sleep of a wearied man is sound.
The height of a man is seldom more than six feet.

347. When an Abstract noun is used as a Common noun in the Singular number (see § 117), it must have an article, either the Definite or the Indefinite, placed before it.

Erroneous.

He gave very wise *judgment*.
He made very good *speech*.
You are not *justice* of the High Court.
My son, I fear, is not *genius*.
Your daughter is quite *beauty*.
Your conduct will be blamed by *authorities*.

Corrected.

He gave a very wise *judgment*.
He made a very good *speech*.
You are not a *justice* of the High Court.
My son, I fear, is not a *genius*.
Your daughter is quite a *beauty*.
Your conduct will be blamed by *the authorities*.

348. When a Proper noun is used as a Common noun in the Singular number, it must have an article placed before it (see § 117).

Erroneous.

He was *Kalidas* of his country.
Czar of Russia rules a great Empire.
He is *Daniel* in wisdom.
You are almost *Newton* in your knowledge of astronomy.

Corrected.

He was *the Kalidas* of his country.
The Czar of Russia rules a great Empire.
He is *a Daniel* in wisdom.
You are almost *a Newton* in your knowledge of astronomy.

349. A Proper noun is preceded by the Definite article, when it is the name of a river, or a group of islands, or a range of mountains, or a strait, or a gulf, or a bay, sea, or ocean (see § 120).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
<i>Ganges</i> has overflowed its bank.	<i>The Ganges</i> has overflowed its bank.
<i>Andamans</i> are a group of islands.	<i>The Andamans</i> are a group of islands.
<i>Vindhyas</i> are a range of mountains.	<i>The Vindhyas</i> are a range of mountains.
<i>Palk Straits</i> separate India from Ceylon.	<i>The Palk Straits</i> separate India from Ceylon.
<i>Gulf</i> of Cambay is on the west coast of India.	<i>The Gulf</i> of Cambay is on the west coast of India.
<i>Bay</i> of Bengal separates India from Burma.	<i>The Bay</i> of Bengal separates India from Burma.
<i>Arabian Sea</i> separates India from Africa.	<i>The Arabian Sea</i> separates India from Africa.
<i>Indian Ocean</i> separates Australia from Africa.	<i>The Indian Ocean</i> separates Australia from Africa.

350. But a Proper noun is not preceded by the Definite article, when it is the name of a *single* island or a *single* mountain (see § 120).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
<i>The Mount Everest</i> is the highest peak in the world.	<i>Mount Everest</i> is the highest peak in the world.
<i>The Mount Abu</i> is in Rajputana.	<i>Mount Abu</i> is in Rajputana.
<i>The Ceylon</i> is a beautiful island.	<i>Ceylon</i> is a beautiful island.
Scotland is in the northern part of the <i>Great Britain</i> .	Scotland is in the northern part of <i>Great Britain</i> .

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS.

351. The form of a Possessive pronoun depends upon its position and use (see § 145).

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I am <i>yours</i> humble servant.	I am <i>your</i> humble servant.
That horse is <i>my</i> .	That horse is <i>mine</i> .
Bring <i>mine</i> hat.	Bring <i>my</i> hat.
His horse and <i>your</i> are both tired.	His horse and <i>yours</i> are both tired.
That horse of <i>your</i> is tired.	That horse of <i>yours</i> is tired.

352. The Indefinite pronoun "*one*" should not be followed by "*his*," but by "*one's*" (see § 155, b).

Erroneous.

One should take care of *his* health.
 One must mind *his* own business.
 A man should keep *one's* own promise.

Corrected.

One should take care of *one's* health.
 One must mind *one's* own business.
 A man should keep *his* own promise.

353. A Possessive pronoun should not be used for a pronoun combined with a preposition.

Erroneous.

I hope to receive *your* good report.
 We shall be glad to get *your* good news.
Your separation distresses me.
His respect is always in my thoughts.

Corrected.

I hope to receive a good report of *you* or *about you* or *from you*.
 We shall be glad to get good news of *you*.
 Separation *from you* distresses me.
 My respect *for him* is always in my thoughts.

354. Whenever a pronoun in the *First* person is coupled with a pronoun or noun in the *Second* or *Third* person, the pronoun in the *First* person should be mentioned *last*.

Erroneous.

I and James have come.
 This room is for *me and him*.
 That dog is both *mine and his*.
My horse and *yours* are both lame.

Corrected.

James and I have come.
 This room is for *him and me*.
 That dog is both *his and mine*.
Your horse and *mine* are both lame.

355. Personal and Demonstrative pronouns should not be omitted after Transitive verbs.

Erroneous.

The man is not here. Shall I *call*?
 I have a knife. Do you *want*?
 Bring me the book. I am *bring- ing*.
 As soon as I entered the room, he *told* to sit down.

Corrected.

The man is not here. Shall I *call him*?
 I have a knife. Do you *want it*?
 Bring me the book. I am *bring- ing it*.
 As soon as I entered the room, he *told me* to sit down.

356. The Neuter form of the Relative pronoun is used after all nouns except those denoting *persons* or *personified things* (see § 157).

Erroneous.

This is the bird *who* sings.
 Are you the man *which* came here yesterday?
 Look at that ape *who* is climbing up a tree.

Corrected.

This is the bird *which* sings.
 Are you the man *who* came here yesterday?
 Look at that ape *which* is climbing up a tree.

✓ 357. Such.—After this word the Relative pronoun takes the form of “as” (see § 161).

Erroneous.

This is not such a book *which* I expected it to be.

His behaviour was such *which* could not be pardoned.

Corrected.

This is not such a book *as* I expected it to be.

His behaviour was such *as* could not be pardoned.

✓ 358. Same.—After this word the Relative pronoun takes the form of “as” or “that” (see § 161).

Erroneous.

This is the same mistake *which* you made before.

This is the same man *who* came here yesterday.

+ This is the same book *which* is yours.

Corrected.

This is the same mistake *that* you made before.

This is the same man *that* came here yesterday.

This is the same book *as* yours.

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF VERBS.

359. There.—When the subject to an Intransitive verb is placed after the verb instead of before it, the verb is preceded by the introductory adverb “there” (see § 29).

Erroneous.

Were ten men in the boat.

Seems to be a very rough wind.

Outside the gate *stands* a man.

Corrected.

There were ten men in the boat.

There seems to be a very rough wind.

Outside the gate *there stands* a man.

360. The Reflexive pronoun is omitted after many Transitive verbs (see § 180, b). Such verbs then become Intransitive.

Erroneous.

He kept *himself* inside the house.

Move *yourself* over to this side.

He made *himself* off with the money.

The monsoon has *burst itself*.

Let us bathe *ourselves* here.

Corrected.

He *kept* inside the house.

More over to this side.

He *made* off with the money.

The monsoon has *burst*.

Let us *bathe* here.

Sometimes the omission of the Reflexive is wrong :—

Erroneous.

He *availed* of the offer.

He *resigned* to his fate.

He *exerted* to win a prize.

Corrected.

He *availed himself* of the offer.

He *resigned himself* to his fate.

He *exerted himself* to win a prize.

Sometimes both forms are right ; but the addition of the Reflexive pronoun gives more emphasis to the action denoted by the verb :—

Emphatic form.

He *rested himself* on the bed.
I *engaged myself* in business.
The clouds have *dispersed themselves*.
He prepared *himself* for the journey.
The fog has *spread itself* over the field.

General form.

He *rested* on the bed.
I *engaged* in business.
The clouds have *dispersed*.
He *prepared* for the journey.
The fog has *spread* over the field.

361. Negative Sentences.—The universal rule, except in poetry, is that “not” must be placed between some auxiliary verb and the main verb (see § 204).

Erroneous.

He *loves not* his work.
He *came not* back to his post.
He *is coming not* here again.

Corrected.

He *does not love* his work.
He *did not come* back to his post.
He *is not coming* here again.

Note.—“Not” is also placed after Defective verbs ; as,—“He *must not go*” ; “he *ought not to go*” ; “he *cannot go*” ; “he *may not go*.”

362. Interrogative Sentences.—The universal rule, except in poetry, is that the subject must be placed between some auxiliary verb and the main verb (see § 204).

Erroneous.

Why *he told* that falsehood ?
How *you know* that ?
When *you will return* home ?
Where *you lived* last year ?
What study *he likes* best ?
Which book *you will read* first ?
You ever saw him before ?
He comes back to-day ?

Corrected.

Why *did he tell* that falsehood ?
How *do you know* that ?
When *will you return* home ?
Where *did you live* last year ?
What study *does he like* best ?
Which book *will you read* first ?
Did you ever see him before ?
Does he come back to-day ?

363. Shall, will.—When merely Future time is meant, and there is no implied *command* or implied *intention*, the first person is expressed by “shall” and the second and third by “will” (see § 207).

Erroneous.

I *will* be drowned ; nobody *shall* save me.
I *will* receive my pay to-day.
You *shall* sleep well, if you are thoroughly tired.
You *shall* remember what you read, if you read attentively..
He *shall* seem foolish, if he says that again.

Corrected.

I *shall* be drowned ; nobody *will* save me.
I *shall* receive my pay to-day.
You *will* sleep well if you are thoroughly tired.
You *will* remember what you read, if you read attentively..
He *will* seem foolish, if he says that again.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I think I <i>will</i> pass.	I think I <i>shall</i> pass.
I hope you <i>shall</i> pass.	I hope you <i>will</i> pass.
They believe that he <i>shall</i> pass.	They believe that he <i>will</i> pass.
I have no doubt he <i>shall</i> come.	I have no doubt he <i>will</i> come.

364. The Present Perfect connects a completed event with *present time* in some sense or other (see §§ 214, 215).

(a) *The Present Indefinite misused for the Present Perfect.*

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I <i>am</i> ill for two days.	I <i>have been</i> ill for two days.
For one whole week there <i>is</i> no break in the rains.	For one whole week there <i>has been</i> no break in the rains.
It is two weeks since I <i>am</i> here.	I <i>have been</i> here for the last two weeks.
I <i>am</i> long of this opinion.	I <i>have long been</i> of this opinion.
My son <i>is</i> ill all this week.	My son <i>has been</i> ill all this week.

(b) *The Past Indefinite misused for the Present Perfect.*

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I <i>did</i> not yet finish the work.	I <i>have not yet finished</i> the work.
I <i>did</i> not see him from a long time.	I <i>have not seen</i> him for a long time.
I <i>finished</i> my work just now.	I <i>have just finished</i> my work.
I <i>lived</i> here for the last three years.	I <i>have lived</i> here for the last three years.
The grass <i>began</i> to sprout, as the rains have now set in.	The grass <i>has begun</i> to sprout, as the rains have now set in.

(c) *The Present Perfect misused for the Past Indefinite.*

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
Baber <i>has founded</i> the Mogul Empire.	Baber <i>founded</i> the Mogul Empire.
Aurangzeb <i>has done</i> much evil to the Mogul Empire.	Aurangzeb <i>did</i> much evil to the Mogul Empire.
The rain <i>has begun</i> to fall as soon as the wind went down.	The rain <i>began</i> to fall as soon as the wind went down.
He <i>has not come</i> at the time when he was ordered.	He <i>did not come</i> at the time when he was ordered.

(d) *The Present Perfect misused with an Adverb or Phrase denoting Past time (§ 216).*

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
The rain <i>has ceased</i> yesterday.	The rain <i>ceased</i> yesterday.
I <i>have finished</i> my letter last night.	I <i>finished</i> my letter last night.
This custom <i>has</i> formerly been much practised.	This custom <i>was</i> formerly much practised.

Erroneous.

The parrot *has died* a few days ago.

Our horse *has run* away in the night.

I *have come* here this morning.

The sun *has set* at seven o'clock.

I *have matriculated* in April last.

The famine of 1877 *has been* very severe.

Corrected.

The parrot *died* a few days ago.

Our horse *ran* away in the night.

I *came* here this morning.

The sun *set* at seven o'clock.

I *matriculated* in April last.

The famine of 1877 *was* very severe.

365. The Past Perfect tense invariably denotes that some action or event had been completed *before another was commenced* (see § 217).

(a) *The Past Perfect misused for the Past Indefinite.**Erroneous.*

I *had bought* two books yesterday.

The sun *had set* at seven o'clock.

The meeting of the 8th instant *had unanimously resolved*, etc.

I *had sent* notice in December last.

Corrected.

I *bought* two books yesterday.

The sun *set* at seven o'clock.

The meeting of the 8th instant *unanimously resolved*, etc.

I *sent* notice in December last.

(b) *The Past Indefinite misused for the Past Perfect.**Erroneous.*

He *was* ill for two days, when the doctor was sent for.

The sheep were scattered; for a wolf *entered* the fold.

The doctor came to the patient, who *was* long ill.

Corrected.

He *had been* ill for two days, when the doctor was sent for.

The sheep were scattered; for a wolf *had entered* the fold.

The doctor came to the patient, who *had long been* ill.

366. After certain words, and in certain constructions, the "to" is omitted before the Simple Infinitive (see § 233).

Erroneous.

I heard him *to say* so.

We saw him *to take* aim with his bow.

I have known him *to laugh* for nothing.

You had better not *to remain* here.

I had rather *to take* this than that.

He did nothing but *to laugh*.

You need not *to stop* here.

Corrected.

I heard him *say* so.

We saw him *take* aim with his bow.

I have known him *laugh* for nothing.

You had better not *remain* here.

I had rather *take* this than that.

He did nothing but *laugh*.

You need not *stop* here.

367. When the Gerundial Infinitive of an Intransitive verb is used to qualify a noun, the Infinitive verb

must be invariably followed by a preposition (see § 236 (b), *Note*).

Erroneous.

Bring me a chair *to sit*.

I want a stick *to walk*.

The boy must have a companion *to play*.

He had no bed *to lie*.

Corrected.

Bring me a chair *to sit on*.

I want a stick *to walk with*.

The boy must have a companion *to play with*.

He had no bed *to lie on*.

368. The Past Participle of Intransitive verbs is not often used ; but whenever it is used, it must be placed *before*, and not after, the noun which it qualifies (see § 242).

Erroneous.

There is no scent in the rose *faded* this morning.

I am sorry for the candidate *failed* in the last examination.

He is a candidate *passed* last year.

Corrected.

There is no scent in the rose *which faded* this morning.

I am sorry for the candidate *who failed* in the last examination.

He is a *passed* candidate of last year.

369. On the use or misuse of the Possessive case before a Gerund, see § 250.

Erroneous.

I was pleased at *him* coming back.
He was amused at the *horse* running after him.

I ask *your* favour of sending me an answer.

I depend upon the *wall's* being built.

Corrected.

I was pleased at *his* coming back.
He was amused at the *horse's* running after him.

I ask the favour of *your* sending me an answer.

I depend upon the *wall* being built.

370. A Noun-Infinitive and a Gerund are equivalent in meaning (see § 44). But if a Preposition is required, the Gerund must be used, and not the Infinitive.

Erroneous.

He persisted *to say* this.

I insisted *to have* my fee paid.

We should refrain *to do* evil.

They prohibited me *to borrow* a book.

Do not prevent me *to work*.

I insisted on *him* *to go* away.

I depend on *you* *to do* this.

Abstain *to speak* evil of others.

I take this opportunity *to send* you a specimen.

Corrected.

He persisted *in saying* this.

I insisted *on having* my fee paid.

We should refrain *from doing* evil.

They prohibited me *from borrowing* a book.

Do not prevent me *from working*.

I insisted on *his* *going* away.

I depend on *your* *doing* this.

Abstain *from speaking* ill of others.

I take this opportunity *of sending* you a specimen.

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADVERBS.

371. *Very, much.*—The four facts to be noted are:—

(a) “*Much*” qualifies adjectives or adverbs in the *Comparative* degree; (b) “*Very*” qualifies them in the *Positive* degree; (c) “*Much*” is more commonly used than “*very*” for qualifying *Past* participles; (d) “*Very*” is used for qualifying *Present* participles.

Erroneous.

I am *very* surprised at the news.
This news is *much* surprising.
I am *much* sorry to hear this.
I accept your offer *much* gladly.
He is *very* more industrious than you.
The air is *very* hotter to-day than yesterday.

Corrected.

I am *much* surprised at the news.
This news is *very* surprising.
I am *very* sorry to hear this.
I accept your offer *very* gladly.
He is *much* more industrious than you.
The air is *much* hotter to-day than yesterday.

372. *Too.*—This adverb means *more than enough*, and should not be used in the sense of “*very*” or “*much*.”

Erroneous.

My son's health is *too* good.
Sugar is *too* sweet.
He was *too* distressed at his friend's death.
A cow's milk is *too* wholesome.
Your spelling is *too* accurate.

Corrected.

My son's health is *very* good.
Sugar is *very* sweet.
He was *much* distressed at his friend's death.
A cow's milk is *very* wholesome.
Your spelling is *very* accurate.

373. *Quite.*—This adverb means “*completely*,” “*perfectly*,” and should not be used for “*very*.”

Erroneous.

This bridge is *quite* dangerous.
Bad water is *quite* unwholesome.
I was *quite* sorry to hear of his illness.

Corrected.

This bridge is *very* dangerous.
Bad water is *very* unwholesome.
I was *very* sorry to hear of his illness.

N.B.—“*Quite*” is sometimes used with *Past* participles in the sense of “*much*”; as, “*quite* delighted,” “*quite* distressed,” “*quite* frightened.”

374. *Little, a little.*—“*Little*” is a *Negative* adverb, and means *not much* or *not at all*. “*A little*” is an *Affirmative* adverb, and means *to a slight extent* or *for a short time*.

Erroneous.

I was *little* vexed at having failed.
He was *a little* pleased at his failure.

Corrected.

I was *a little* vexed at having failed.
He was *little* pleased at his failure.

375. By and by.—This adverb means *after an interval*; and therefore it should not be used in the sense of “little by little,” or “gradually,” or “one by one.”

Erroneous.

The visitors went away *by and by*.
He recovered his health *by and by*.
The water all flowed out *by and by*.

Corrected.

The visitors went away *one by one*.
He *gradually* recovered his health.
The water all flowed out *little by little*.

376. Of course.—This adverbial phrase signifies *in the course of nature*. It should not be used loosely in the sense of certainty in general.

Erroneous.

Of course she sings very well.
Did he win a prize last term?
Of course he did.

Corrected.

She *certainly* sings very well.
Did he win a prize last term?
Certainly or indeed he did.

376a. Yes, no.—If the answer to a question is “*yes*,” the verb following must not be negative. If the answer is “*no*,” the verb following must not be affirmative.

Question.—Is the sky cloudy to-day?

Answer.—*Yes*; it is cloudy. Or, *No*; it is not cloudy.

We cannot say, “*Yes*, it is not cloudy,” or “*No*, it is cloudy.”

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS.

377. That.—This conjunction should never be used before a sentence consisting of a quotation, nor before Relative or Interrogative adverbs.

Erroneous.

He said *that* “I shall soon be there.”
He asked *that* how long you would be absent.
Tell me *that* whether you will soon return.

Corrected.

He said, “I shall soon be there.”
He asked how long you would be absent.
Tell me whether you will soon return.

378. As well as, no less than.—These conjunctions give emphasis to the *first* of the two clauses, not to the second (see § 289, *b*).

Erroneous.

He was no less *hopeful* than *confident*.
He was *accused* as well as *convicted*.

Corrected.

He was no less *confident* than *hopeful*.
He was *convicted* as well as *accused*.

379. Not only, but also.—These conjunctions give emphasis to the *second* of the two clauses, and not to the first (see § 289, c).

Erroneous.

He was not only *confident*, but *hopeful*.

He was not only *convicted*, but also *accused*.

Corrected.

He was not only *hopeful*, but *confident*.

He was not only *accused*, but also *convicted*.

380. Until, as long as, while.—To express *time before* we use “until”; to express *time how long* we use “as (or so) long as” or “while” (see § 291, i).

Erroneous.

Until you work hard, you will improve.

He continued lazy, *as long as* he was seventeen years old.

Until the world lasts, the earth will go round the sun.

Corrected.

As long as you work hard, you will improve.

He continued lazy, *until* he was seventeen years old.

While or *so long as* the world lasts, the earth will go round the sun.

381. No sooner, as soon as.—These mean the same thing; but after “no sooner” we must take care to use the conjunction “than” and the auxiliary verb “do.”

Erroneous.

No sooner he *heard* the news, he wept aloud.

No sooner he *died*, his sons quarrelled over his property.

Corrected.

No sooner *did* he *hear* the news *than* he wept aloud.

or, *As soon as* he heard the news he wept aloud.

No sooner *did* he *die* *than* his sons quarrelled over his property.

or, *As soon as* he died, his sons quarrelled over his property.

382. Unless, if.—The conjunction “unless” means “if not.” (see § 291, e).

Erroneous.

Unless you do not work hard, you will be plucked.

Unless you have no objection, I will come to-morrow.

Corrected.

If you do not work hard, you will be plucked.

If you have no objection, I will come to-morrow.

383. Because, in order that.—To express a *cause* or *reason* we use “because.” To express a *purpose* we use “in order that,” “so that,” etc. (see § 291, b and d).

Erroneous.

Men work *because* they may earn a living.

He took medicine *because* he might get well.

Corrected.

Men work *that* or *so that* or *in order that* they may earn a living.

He took medicine *so that* he might get well.

CHAPTER XIII.—SYNTAX.

§ 1.—RELATIONS OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

PARSING CHART.I. *Nouns.*

Kind of Noun.	Gender.	Number.	Case.
Proper Common Collective Material Abstract	Masculine Feminine Common Neuter	Singular Plural	Nominative Possessive Objective

II. *Pronouns.*

Kind of Pronoun.	Gender.	Number	Person.	Case.
Pers. { Simple Reflexive Demos. { Definite Indefinite	Masculine Feminine Common Neuter	Singular Plural	1st 2nd 3rd	Nominative Possessive Objective
Relative Interrogative	If Relat. or Demons., agreeing in Gender, Number, and Person with its antecedent.			

III. *The Cases of Nouns or Pronouns.*

<i>Nom.</i> to Verb.	<i>Obj.</i> to Verb Direct	<i>Obj.</i> in Apposition
„ as Compl. to Verb	„ „ Indirect	„ to Preposition
„ in Apposition	„ „ Retained	„ Adverbial
„ of Address	„ „ Cognate	„ after certain Ad-
„ Absolute	„ „ Reflexive	jectives
<i>Possessive</i>	„ as Compl. to Verb	„ Interjectional

IV. *Adjectives.*

The Kind of Adjective.	Degree.	Use.
Proper. Of Quality. Numer. { Def. Of Quantity. Indef.	Positive Comparative Superlative	Attributive Predicative
Distributive. Demons. { Def. Indef.		

V. *Adverbs.*

Kind.	Degree.	Use.	Attributive Uses.
Simple Relative Interrogative	Positive Comparative Superlative	Attributive Predicative	To qualify Verb " " Adjective " " Adverb " " Preposition " " Conjunction " " Sentence

VI. *Finite Verbs.*

Kind of Verb.	Person.	Number.	Tense.	Form.
Transitive Intransitive Auxiliary	1st 2nd 3rd	Singular Plural	Present Past Future	{ Indefinite Continuous Perfect Perf. Contin.

Mood.	Voice.	
Indicative Imperative Subjunctive	Active Passive	Agreeing in number and person with its subject or subjects, expressed or understood.

VII. *Infinitive.*

Form.	(a) Use as Noun-Inf.	(b) Use as Gerundial Inf.
Indefinite Continuous Perfect Perf. Contin.	Subject to Verb Object to Verb Complement to Verb Object to Preposition Exclamatory	To qualify— " a Verb " a Noun { Attributively Predicatively " an Adjective To introduce a Parenthesis

VIII. *Participle or Verbal Adjective.*

Form.	Voice.	Kind of Verb.	Use.
Present Past Perfect	Active Passive	Transitive Intransitive	Attributive Predicative { Complement Absolute Gerundive.

IX. *Gerund.*

Form.	Voice.	Kind of Verb.
Present Perfect	Active Passive	Transitive Intransitive

X. *Conjunctions.*

Co-ordinative.	Subordinative.
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384. Nominative case.—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(1) As Subject to a verb (see § 59):—

I did this. Rain is falling. You are tired.

(2) As Subjective Complement to a verb (see § 182):—

I am the man. Caesar was declared emperor.

Note.—An Infinitive can come between the verb and the noun:—

He appeared to be a wise man.

(3) In Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Nominative case (see § 19):—

John, the carpenter, has succeeded well in business.

(4) For purposes of Address (see § 59):—

How art thou fallen, O Caesar!

(5) In the Absolute construction (see § 28, a):—

Off we started, he remaining behind.

Note.—Without altering the sense, we could substitute the clause “while he remained behind” for the phrase “he remaining behind.” In the absolute construction the noun or pronoun is in the Nominative case, because (as we see from this) it is the Subject to the Finite verb that is implied in the Participle.

385. Possessive case.—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case qualifies Nouns and Gerunds as an adjective would do (§ 114, 4):—

My son. The barber's shop. The tiger's claw.—*Noun.*
 I was displeased at *his* going away without leave. } *Gerund*
 This was a plan of *your* contriving. } (§ 250).

(b) When two Possessive nouns are in apposition with each other, or are connected by “and,” the apostrophe *s* is not added to the noun that stands *first* (see § 65):—

Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife.
 Maple and Company's firm.

(c) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case can be the Complement to a verb; (for Pronouns, see § 145):—

That book is *mine*, not *yours*.
 This shop seems to be *a barber's*.

386. Objective case.—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(1) As Object to a verb (§ 193, *Note*):—

(a) The master teaches *Euclid*. (*Direct.*)
 (b) He teaches *his sons* Euclid. (*Indirect.*)
 (c) His sons were taught *Euclid*. (*Retained.*)
 (d) The fever will run its *course*. (*Cognate.*)
 (e) He sat *himself* down. (*Reflexive.*)

(2) As Objective Complement to a verb (§ 182):—

The citizens made him their *king*.

Note.—An Infinitive can come between the verb and the noun:—

The people considered him *to be* a wise man.

(3) In Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Objective case (§ 19):—

The people of England beheaded Charles I., their *king*.

(4) As Object to a preposition (§ 60):—

He fought against *me*. A house built on *sand*.

(5) Adverbial Objective:—so called, because such phrases qualify words as an adverb would do (§ 267, 5):—

He lived ten *years* (Time). He walked ten *miles* (Space). This cost ten *rupees* (Price). That box weighs ten *seers* (Weight). The air is a *trifle* hotter to-day (Degree). Bind him *hand and foot* (Attendant circumstance).

(6) Objective after the adjectives “like” or “unlike,”

"near," "next." (This has probably arisen from the omission of the preposition "*to*," which is still sometimes used after these adjectives):—

No man could bend the bow *like him*.

The house *nearest the grove* is the one that I prefer.

(7) Objective after Interjections or in exclamatory phrases:—

Unhappy *me!* Oh unhappy *man!* Oh dear *me!*

Foolish *fellow!* *to* have wasted his time as he has done!

387. The two uses of Adjectives.—See No. IV. of Parsing Chart.

(a) Attributive use (§ 113):—

An *industrious* student will generally succeed.

(b) Predicative use (§ 113):—

He was *industrious*, and therefore he succeeded.

388. Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective (§ 114, 3). A noun or gerund can be used attributively for an adjective, but not predicatively:—

A *village* watchman. *Drinking* water.

A *sea* captain. *Marble* halls. A *bathing* place.

389. Adjective substituted for Adverb.—An adverb qualifying a *verb* can be changed into an adjective qualifying the *subject* to the verb. The adjective in this case is an "adverbial adjunct" (§ 306, c):—

He went away *sad*. The stars are shining *bright*.

And *furious* every charger neighed.—*Campbell*.

Dark lowers the tempest overhead.—*Longfellow*.

And *fearless* there the lowly sleep.—*Mrs. Hemans*.

They neither toil nor spin, but *careless* grow.—*Thompson*.

Slow rises worth, by poverty suppressed.—*Johnson*.

Note 1.—When the adverb qualifies *any part of speech except a verb*, we cannot substitute an adjective for it. Thus we cannot say "He is *immense* clever" for "He is *immensely* clever."

Note 2.—In poetry an adjective and adverb are sometimes coupled together by "*and*."

When *faint and wearily* he drags

Along his noontide way.—*Southey*.

Trip it *deft and merrily*.—*Scott*.

Very *carefully and slow*.—*Tennyson*.

Here either one *-ly* is made to do duty for both adjectives; or the construction is mixed, the adjective qualifying the subject, and the adverb the verb.

390. Pronoun and Antecedent.—See Nos. II. and III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) A Pronoun must be in the same person, number, and gender as its Antecedent; but in case it depends upon its own sentence. (This is called a Concord or Agreement.)

After Cæsar was declared *emperor* (Nominative), they slew *him* (Objective).

You must return the *book* (Objective), *which* (Nominative) was lent.

(b) A Relative pronoun, if it has two Antecedents, and these are not of the same person, agrees in person with the Antecedent *nearest to it*.—

You are the man who *is* chosen.

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences :—

I am the man who seek to help thee in distress. Thou art the man who fleest away in the time of danger. Art thou the chief, who brokest the power of the enemy?

391. The two uses of Adverbs.—See No. V. of Parsing Chart.

(a) Attributive use (§ 270). An adverb, when it is used attributively, may qualify anything except a noun or pronoun :—

(1) *Adjective.*—He is *remarkably* clever.

(2) *Verb.*—Act *decisively*, if you act at all.

(3) *Other Adverb.*—He explained his views *remarkably* well.

(4) *Preposition.*—The sun stood *exactly* over our heads.

(5) *Conjunction.*—You may go *only* if you promise to return.

(6) *Sentence.*—*Fortunately*, all the thieves were caught.

(b) Predicative use (§ 270). Here the adverb is Complement (Subjective or Objective) to the verb going before :—

(1) *Subjective.*—The results will soon be *out* (=published).

(2) *Objective.*—We found *him* quite *well* (=in perfect health).

392. Verb and Subject.—See No. VI. of Parsing Chart as to Number and Person.

A Finite verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject (§ 199). (This is another Concord or Agreement.)

Make the verbs agree properly with their subjects in the following examples :—

When you was here last, you was very fond of reading. The pleasures of life vanishes, when we becomes old and infirm. Thou would have seen the horse, if it had come towards us. School is

broken up and the boys is playing at cricket. The Taj Mahal at Agra have stood a great many years. You is not the man that I want. I am still as fond of books as when you was here before. The movement of most quadrupeds are very swift. You wilt be rewarded with a prize for your industry. The following plans has been settled. The origin of Hindu manners and customs are unknown.

393. The Third Person of Verbs.—A verb is invariably in the Third person, except when the Subject is a Personal pronoun in the First or Second person (§ 22):—

- (a) *Noun*.—A *snake* is crawling through the grass.
- (b) *Pronoun*.—*He* returns to us to-morrow.
- (c) *Infinitive*.—*To err* is human.
- (d) *Gerund*.—*Sleeping* gives rest to the body.
- (e) *Phrase*.—*How to do this* was unknown to every one.
- (f) *Clause*.—*That we must all die* is certain (see § 22).

394. Subjects not of the same Person.—(a) When two or more Subjects, not of the same Person, are joined by “and,” the verb is in the First person rather than the Second, and in the Second rather than the Third; and the First person should be mentioned last:—

James and I *are* (=we are) great friends.

(b) When two Subjects are joined by “or” or “nor,” the verb agrees in person with the Subject nearest to it:—

Either James or I *am* at the top of the class.

Either you or James *has* done it.

Neither James nor you *were* present.

It would be better, however, to repeat the verb for each Subject. The sentences would then be re-written as follows:—

Either James *is* at the top of the class, or I *am*.

Either you *have* done it, or James *has*.

Neither James *was* present, nor you *were*.

(c) When two Subjects are joined by “as well as,” the verb agrees in number and person with the first one:—

My comrades as well as I myself *were* caught.

The reason of this rule is that “My comrades were caught” is the Principal clause, to which the other clause introduced by “as well as” is Subordinate.

395. Two Singular Nouns with Plural Verb.—Two or more Singular nouns, when they are joined by “and,” require a verb in the Plural.

A man and his wife *have* come here asking for work.

Your horse and mine (=my horse) *are* both at the door.

To this rule there are two exceptions:—

(a) If the two nouns joined by "*and*" refer to the same person or thing, the verb is Singular, and not Plural ; as—

The great scholar and poet *is* dead.

Here "scholar" and "poet" refer to the same man, and the sentence might have been written :—

The man, who was a great scholar and a great poet, *is* dead.

Note.—When the article is mentioned *only once*, as in the sentence "*the* great scholar and poet," it stands for both the nouns. This shows that *only one* person (and not two) is intended, and that hence the verb must be singular.

But if the article is mentioned twice, as in the sentence "*the* scholar and *the* poet," then two distinct persons are intended, and the verb following must be in the plural number ; as—

The scholar and the poet *are* dead.

(b) If the two nouns joined by "*and*" are regarded as denoting *a single object or notion*, the verb is Singular ; as—

Truth and honesty *is* the best policy. Curry and rice *was* his favourite food. Slow and steady *wins* the race.

Here "truth and honesty" = the practice of truth and honesty, and hence the verb following is singular. Similarly, "curry and rice" = the food consisting of curry and rice, or the mixture of curry and rice. "Slow and steady" = the plan of being slow and steady.

396. One Singular Noun with Plural Verb.—A noun of *Multitude* (as distinct from a *Collective* noun, see § 39), is followed by a Plural verb :—

- { The jury (*i.e.* the individual jurors, or men of the jury), *were* divided in *their* opinions, and could not agree as to the verdict.
- { The jury (as one body) selected *its* speaker.
- { The multitude (individual men and women) *rise* from *their* seats and shout applause.
- { This multitude (as one body) *is* too large to be contained in so small a building.

397. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive.—See No. VII. of the Parsing Chart.

The Simple or Noun-Infinitive may be (a) the Subject to a verb, (b) the Object to a verb, (c) the Complement to a verb, (d) the Object to a preposition (although this is very uncommon), (e) a form of exclamation (see § 235) :—

(a) *Subj. to Verb.*—*To sleep* is necessary to health.

(b) *Obj. to Verb.*—We desire *to improve*.

(c) *Comp. to Verb.*—He appears *to be clever*.

(d) *Obj. to Prepos.*—Your cow is about (= near) *to die* (= death).

(e) *Form of Exclam.*—*To think* that he should have deceived me !

398. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive.—See No. VII. of the Parsing Chart.

The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive may be used—(a) to qualify a verb, in which case it does the work of an adverb; (b) to qualify a noun, in which case it does the work of an adjective; (c) to qualify an adjective, in which case it does the work of an adverb; (d) to introduce a parenthesis, in which case it is absolute (see § 236):—

(a) *Verb*.—They went out *to see* the sport.

(b) *Noun* { A house *to let*. (*Attributive*.)
This house is *to let*. (*Predicative*.)

(c) *Adjective*.—Be quick *to hear* and slow *to speak*.

(d) *Parenthesis*.—He is, —*to speak* plainly, —a thief. —

Note.—In qualifying a *noun*, the Infinitive is sometimes used in the Passive voice. No rule, however, can be given as to when the Active voice is the more idiomatic and when the Passive:—

A man *to be admired*. (*Attributive*.)

That man is *to be admired*. (*Predicative*.)

399. The three uses of Participles.—See No. VIII. of the Parsing Chart.

(a) *Attributive* use (see § 113 for Adjectives):—

A *willing* horse. A *fallen* tree. A *withered* flower.

(b) *Predicative* use.—This may occur either (1) when the Participle is Complement to some verb (see § 113 again), or (2) when the Participle is used absolutely with some noun going before (see §§ 28 (a) and 384, 5):—

(1) { We found him *sleeping*. (*Object. Compl.*)
He became *alarmed*. (*Subject. Compl.*)

(2) Our pace was slow, the horse *being tired*. (*Absolute*.)

Note 1.—That the Participle is predicative in the Absolute construction is clear from the fact that an absolute *phrase* can be easily rewritten in the form of a subordinate *clause*, in which a Finite verb or predicate is substituted for the Participle:—

{ Our pace was slow, ~~the horse being tired~~.

{ Our pace was slow, ~~because the horse was tired~~.

Note 2.—When no noun or pronoun is expressed, the Participle is called an *Impersonal Absolute* (see § 28, a, and § 274, 4).

Supposing this to be true, you are certainly guilty.

(c) *Gerundive* use (§ 251).—Here the Participle denotes that something is to be done, and implies a Verbal noun:—

{ This prevented the letter *being sent*; =

{ This prevented *the sending of* the letter.

Parsed Sentence.

Brahmadatta, king of Benares, took a journey through the length and breadth of his kingdom to see if his subjects were happy.

Brahmadatta—Proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “took.”

King—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, in apposition to “*Brahmadatta*.”

Of—Preposition having “Benares” as its object.

Benares—Proper noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “of.”

Took—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past indefinite tense, indicative mood, active voice, agreeing with its subject “*Brahmadatta*,” and having “journey” for its object.

Journey—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “took.”

Through—Preposition having “length” and “breadth” for its objects.

Length—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case to the preposition “through.”

And—Co-ordinative conjunction, joining the two nouns “length” and “breadth.”

Breadth—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case to the preposition “through.”

Of—Preposition having “kingdom” for its object.

His—Personal (or demonstrative) pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, third person; agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “*Brahmadatta*.” Qualifies the noun “kingdom.”

Kingdom—Common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case after the preposition “of.”

To see—Verb transitive, infinitive mood, present indefinite form, gerundial in use, qualifying the verb “took”; transitive verb having for its object the clause “if . . . prosperous.”

If—Subordinative conjunction.

His—(To be parsed as above.)

Subjects—Common noun, common gender, plural number, nominative case, subject to the verb “were.”

Were—Verb intransitive, third person, plural number, past indefinite tense, indicative mood, agreeing with its subject “subjects.”

Happy—Adjective of quality, positive degree, predicative in use, subjective complement to the verb “were.”

§ 2.—POSITION OF WORDS.

Adjective and Noun.

400. The position of an Adjective in relation to its noun generally depends upon whether the adjective is used *attributively* or *predicatively* (see § 113).

Adjectives used Attributively.

401. When an adjective is used attributively, the invariable rule is to keep it *as close as possible* to the noun which it qualifies.

402. In *prose* the adjective almost always precedes its noun. In *poetry*, for the sake of rhyme or metre, it may be placed after its noun :—

Prose.

A *just* man. *Bright* prospects. *This* rose. *Other* roses.
Much pain. *Ten* men. *The fifth* class. *Double* promotion.

Poetry.

He sang to lords and ladies *gay*
 The unpremeditated lay.—*Scott*.
 The old man *eloquent*.—*Byron*.

403. When an adjective is enlarged by some qualifying phrase, it must always be placed *after* its noun :—

A man *dear* to all. A matter too *urgent* to be put off any longer.
 A doctor well *practised* in all the arts of medicine and *worthy*
 of public confidence. Bread *enough* and to spare.

Note.—In such examples as the above the adjective must be placed after its noun, in consequence of the “invariable rule” given in § 401 ; for if we said “a dear to all man,” the words “to all” would separate the qualifying adjective from its noun.

404. When several adjectives qualify the same noun at once, they can be placed either before or after their noun :—

A horse strong, swift, and young ; or a strong, swift, and young horse.

Note 1.—If one of the adjectives is much longer than the other, it sounds better to put the shorter one first :—

An *old* and *conscientious* servant.
 The *shorter* and *less laborious* of the two methods.

Note 2.—If the adjectives consist of *long* words, it sounds better to place them after the noun :—

God is the maker of all things *visible* and *invisible*, *animate* and *inanimate*.

405. Sometimes an adjective is placed after its noun for the sake of point or emphasis.

How does this position give point or emphasis to the adjective ? Because the natural position of the adjective is to stand *before* its

noun. By putting it out of its natural place, greater attention is drawn to it.

Things *temporal* are less precious than things *eternal*.

No man *living* could have done so well.

I appeal from Philip *drunk* to Philip *sober*.

The body *natural* and the body *politie*.

406. For the sake of emphasis or distinction (as explained in the previous paragraph) an adjective used as a *qualifying title* is placed after its noun :—

Alfred the *Great*. Alexander the *Great*. Yudisthir the *Just*.

Ethelred the *Unready*. Albert the *Good*. Louis the *Pious*.

Charles the *Fat*. Philip the *Fair*. Richard the *Lion-hearted*.

Charles the *Bold*.

To the same principle must be ascribed the position of the titles “Elder” and “Younger”; as—

Cato the *Elder*; Cato the *Younger*.

Pliny the *Elder*; Pliny the *Younger*.

Kings of the same name have been distinguished into first, second, third, etc., to indicate their historical order. These titles of order are usually shown by means of Roman figures, I., II., III., and they always stand last :—

Edward I. (=Edward the First), Edward II. (=Edward the Second).

407. There are certain stock phrases, in which it has become idiomatic to place the adjective after its noun.

This is chiefly due to what has been borrowed from the French language or French idiom; but it has sometimes been done for the sake of emphasis or antithesis :—

The body politic = the state or community. (This is due to the old antithesis between the body *natural*, that is, the body of the individual man as made by nature, and the body *politic* or the collective body as made by society.)

Malice prepense: some evil purpose previously devised or meditated.

Heir apparent: one who by right of birth, and hence “to all appearances,” will succeed to the throne or to some estate.

Lords Temporal and Spiritual: this is the distinction between those who are peers or lords by temporal or worldly rank, and those who are lords by spiritual or ecclesiastical rank.

Notary public: one who registers deeds, wills, and other legal documents for the public.

Knight errant: a knight who makes it his business to move from place to place in search of wrongs to be righted.

Governor-General; *Inspector-General*; *Viceroy elect*; *bishop elect*, etc. (The adjective “elect” denotes an officer who has been

nominated or selected for the post, but has not yet been formally appointed.)

The sum *total*; price *current*; a fiend *incarnate*; a god *incarnate*; point *blank* (the white or blank spot in the centre of a target); letters *patent*; lord *paramount*; things *temporal*; things *eternal*.

Adjectives used Predicatively.

408. When an adjective is used predicatively, it is placed after its noun:—

(a) *When the verb is Intransitive or in the Passive voice:—*

All men are *mortal*. He lay *dead* on the ground. He became *very rich*. He was left *rich* by his father. He was considered *wise*.
(*Subjective Complement.*)

(b) *When the verb is Transitive and in the Active voice:—*

My father left me *poor*, but *well educated*. The judge declared him *guilty*. (*Objective Complement.*)

409. But for the sake of emphasis, we may place the Predicative adjective (or participle) first, so as to draw more attention to it:—

Great is Diana of the Ephesians.
Disgraced you are, and will remain.
Sweet are the uses of adversity.

Adverbs.

410. If the word to be qualified is an Adjective, or an Adverb, or a Preposition, or a Conjunction, the qualifying Adverb is placed immediately *before it*.

<i>Adjective</i> or <i>Participle</i>	{	We are <i>half</i> pleased and <i>half</i> sorry.
		The mango you brought was <i>quite</i> ripe.
<i>Adverb</i>	{	Your pay is <i>too</i> high for your work.
		A snake creeps <i>very</i> silently.
		He stood <i>far</i> apart from me.
<i>Preposition</i>	{	He seized my hand <i>rather</i> eagerly.
		He arrived <i>long</i> before the time.
		We sat <i>almost</i> in the shade.
<i>Conjunction</i>	{	He stood <i>exactly</i> behind me.
		Tell me <i>precisely</i> how it happened.
		I like a mango <i>only</i> when it is ripe.
		He did this <i>merely</i> because he was ordered.

Note.—There is one exception to the above rule. The word “enough” (when it is an Adverb and not an Adjective) is placed *after* the word it qualifies:—

Your pay is good *enough* for your work.
He spoke highly *enough* of what you had done.

✓ 411. If the verb to be qualified is *Intransitive*, the qualifying Adverb is placed immediately *after* it :—

He lived *well* and died *happily*.

He laughed *heartily* at that joke.

He spoke *foolishly* about his own merits.

Note.—Adverbs denoting Time are an exception to this rule : for we find that *now*, *then*, *always*, *never*, *often*, *sometimes*, *generally*, *rarely*, *qualify*, and *seldom* are usually placed *before*, and not *after*, the verb they qualify.

He *always* laughed at a good joke.

He *never* spoke about his own merits.

He *often* came here to see me.

He *sometimes* slept in my house.

He *seldom* stayed with me for long.

But they can be placed after as well as before the verb “to be” :—

He is *seldom* absent. He *seldom* is absent.

✓ 412. If the verb to be qualified is *Transitive*, the qualifying adverb must not be allowed to separate the verb and its object. ✕

The Adverb must therefore be placed either *before the verb* or *after the Object*; but it is more commonly placed after the object :—

He bore his losses *cheerfully*.

He did his work *patiently* till sunset.

He *briefly* explained his meaning.

Sometimes, however, if the object is qualified by a clause, or consists of a good many words, the adverb may come between the verb and its object :—

He rewarded *liberally* all those who had served him well.

But this is scarcely as idiomatic as, “He liberally rewarded,” etc.

✓ 413. If the tense of the verb is formed by an Auxiliary verb, the adverb is generally placed *between the Auxiliary verb and the Principal verb* :—

The wind has *suddenly* risen. Your son will soon return.

I have *quite* understood you. He is *almost* dying, I fear.

Similarly the Negative adverb “*not*” is always placed between the Auxiliary verb and the Principal verb :—

We have *not* seen him since Monday last.

I did *not* know how ill he was.

We shall *not* punish him severely.

Correct the position of the adverb in the following sentences :—

He *exactly* stood in front of me. He explained *clearly* his words. I have read *often* that book. He struck *severely* the ox with his whip. He *soon* will return home. ✕ He *almost* has finished his task. The rain began to fall *suddenly*. Your teacher is *enough* pleased with your industry. He went out *seldom* before sunset.

414. An Adverb is placed first in a sentence—(a) when it is intended to qualify *the whole sentence*, (b) when it is used *very emphatically*.

(a) *Luckily* no one was inside, when the roof fell in.

(b) *Down* went the Royal George with all her crew complete.

—Cowper.

The meaning of the two sentences given below depends entirely on the position of the adverb:—

(1) *Happily* he did not die.

(2) He did not die *happily*.

In (1) the adverb qualifies the entire sentence, because it stands first (as just explained). In (2) it qualifies the Intransitive verb "die," because it is placed immediately after it; see § 411. So (1) means, "It was a happy result that he did not die"; and (2) means, "He did not die a happy death."

415. *Only*.—The meaning of a sentence depends upon the position of this word:—

(a) *Only* he promised to read the first chapter of that book.

Here "only" is an Adjective, and not an Adverb. As an adjective it qualifies the pronoun "he."

He alone, and no one else, promised to read the first chapter, etc.

(b) He *only* promised to read the first chapter of that book.

Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the verb "promised"; and the meaning is that he merely or only promised, but did not perform the promise.

(c) He promised *only* to read the first chapter of that book.

That is, he did not promise to study, analyse, or remember, but *only to read*. Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the verb "read."

(d) He promised to read *only* the first chapter of that book.

That is, he promised to read nothing more than the *first* chapter. Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the adjective "the first."

(e) He promised to read the first chapter of that book *only* (or, *only* of that book).

That is, he promised to read the first chapter of no other book but that. Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the phrase "of that book."

Subject and Object.

416. As a general rule, in ordinary English prose, the Subject precedes its verb; but the following exceptions should be noted:—

(a) When the verb is Intransitive, and the verb is preceded by the introductory adverb "there" (see § 29):—

On the whole *there* is nothing to prove his guilt.

There came a messenger from the king's court.

- (b) When the verb is used for asking a question :—

At what hour in the morning does *he* get up ?

How came *you* to catch such a bad cold ?

What are *you* carrying in that bag ?

- (c) When the verb is Imperative in mood or sense :—

Go *ye* into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature.—

New Testament.

Thither our path lies : wind *we* up the height.—*Browning.*

N.B.—Usually, however, no subject is expressed when the verb is in the Second person. The second example is not a real Imperative, but a Subjunctive used in an Imperative sense (see § 220).

- (d) When the verb is used in the Subjunctive mood to express a wish ; or when a wish is expressed by the auxiliary “may” (see § 230, 2) :—

Long live *the king.*

May *he* never again come inside this house.

- (e) When the verb is used in the Subjunctive mood to express a condition, and the “if” is omitted (see § 230, 3) :—

Should *he* meet me, he would know me at once.

Had *he* met me, he would have known me.

Were *I* certain of his motives, I could trust him.

- (f) When the verb is used to report a speech in the Direct Narration, and is thrust into the middle of the reported speech (§ 428) :—

“Agreed,” said *the prince*, “we will go there to-night.”

“Let me not live,” quoth *he.*

- (g) When a *predicative* Adjective or Participle is placed at the beginning of a sentence for the sake of emphasis ; (see § 182, *Note* 2, and § 409) :—

Great was *the delight* of the citizens.

Blessed are the *merciful* ; for they shall obtain mercy.

- (h) When an adverb is placed at the beginning of a sentence for the sake of emphasis (see § 414) :—

Up rose *the men* at the word of command.

There goes *the thief* ; catch him, if you can.

- (i) When two simple sentences are joined together by a pair of correlative words, the subject in one of the clauses is often put after its verb or after the auxiliary verb :—

As men sow, so will *they* also reap.

The more I saw of him, the less did *I* like him.

So rotten was *the boat*, that it very soon sank.

No sooner did *he* begin to speak, than every one was silent.

Scarcely had *we* reached home, before it began raining.

How the year did the rain.

(j) When the object is placed before its verb, the subject must be placed after it:—

Silver and gold have *I* none.

417. The object to a verb is placed immediately after the verb, except when the object is a Relative or Interrogative pronoun, or unless it is placed at the beginning of a sentence for the sake of emphasis (see § 176).

The house *that* we occupy suits us well. (*Relative.*)

What kind of book do you like best? (*Interrogative.*)

Silver and gold have *I* none. (*Emphasis.*)

418. No other words except (1) an adjective or participle, or (2) a noun or pronoun in the Possessive case, or (3) a noun or gerund used as an adjective, should as a general rule be allowed to come between a verb and its object.

Thus it is against idiom to say, "I have finished *thoroughly* this work." We should say, "I have thoroughly finished this work"; or "I have finished this work thoroughly."

But if the object is qualified by an Adjective clause, it may be separated from its verb by an Adverbial phrase:—

Nobler and loftier emotions lit up *with a generous enthusiasm* the hearts of men who had heavy sacrifices still to make.

Relative and Antecedent.

419. A Relative pronoun or Relative adverb must always be placed as close as possible to its antecedent.

I have read a translation of Plato's writings, who succeeded Socrates.

Here it would have been better to say "the writings *of* Plato, *who* succeeded," etc., because by this change the Relative and its Antecedent are not separated by the word "writings."

Preposition and Object.

420. In prose (not always in poetry) the preposition is placed immediately before its object. But the following exceptions should be noted:—

(a) When the object is "whom," "which," or "what," the preposition *may* be placed last in the sentence and its object first.

That is the man *whom* we were looking for. (*Relative.*)

Which of these chairs did you sit on? (*Interrogative.*)

(b) When the object is the Relative pronoun "that," the preposition is *invariably* put last.

This is the man *that* we were looking for.

(c) When the object is a Relative pronoun understood, the preposition is invariably put last :—

This is the man (whom) we were looking for.

(d) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case or any other qualifying words may come between a preposition and its object :—

He came to the *barber's* shop.

(e) In poetry the preposition is sometimes placed after its noun :—

They dashed that rapid torrent *through*.

CHAPTER XIV.—SEQUENCE OF TENSES : DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION.

§ 1.—SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

421. When two sentences are joined together by some Subordinative conjunction, or by some Relative (or Interrogative) pronoun or adverb, one of them is called the **Principal** and the other the **Dependent** sentence :—

Principal.
I will let you know

Dependent.
when I shall start.

422. There are two main rules about the Sequence of Tenses, and all special rules centre round these two.

RULE I.—*If there is a Past tense in the principal sentence, it must be followed by a Past tense in the dependent sentence :—*

Principal Sentence.
(*Past Tense.*)

It *was* settled,
He *would* come,
He *was* honest,
He *asked* me,
He *was* informed,
We never *understood*,
He *did* not leave off,
I *was* inquiring,
He *succeeded*,
He *remained* silent,
I *would* do this,
He *walked* so far,

Dependent Sentence.
(*Past Tense.*)

that I *should* do this.
if you *wished* it.
although he *was* poor.
whether I *had* seen his dog.
that I *had been* helping him.
how or why he *did* that.
till he *succeeded*.
what you *had* heard.
because he *worked* hard.
as soon as he *heard* that.
if I *were* allowed.
that he *tired* himself.

RULE II.—*If there is a Present or Future tense in the principal sentence, it can be followed by any tense whatever in the dependent sentence.*

Examples of Rule II.

<i>Present</i> or <i>Future.</i>	{ that he reads a book.	} <i>Any tense whatever.</i>
	{ that he is reading.	
	{ that he has read.	} The four forms of the Present tense.
	{ that he has been reading.	
I know or I shall know	{ that he will read.	} The four forms of the Future tense.
	{ that he will be reading.	
	{ that he will have read.	
	{ that he will have been reading.	
	{ that he read.	} The four forms of the Past tense.
	{ that he was reading.	
	{ that he had read.	
	{ that he had been reading.	

423. Exception to Rule I.—There is one exception to Rule I. The Past tense in the principal sentence can be followed by a Present Indefinite in the dependent sentence. to express some *universal or habitual* fact:—

<i>Principal Sentence.</i> (<i>Past Tense.</i>)	<i>Dependent Sentence.</i> (<i>Present Tense.</i>)
They <i>learnt</i> at school,	that honesty <i>is</i> the best policy.
The students <i>were</i> taught,	that the earth <i>moves</i> round the sun.
His illness <i>showed</i> him,	that all men <i>are</i> mortal.
He <i>was</i> glad to hear,	that his brother <i>is</i> industrious.
They <i>were</i> sorry to hear,	that he <i>has</i> a bad temper.

424. Conjunctions of Purpose.—When the dependent sentence is introduced by a Conjunction of *purpose* (§ 291, d), the two following rules must be observed:—

(a) If the verb in the principal sentence is in the Present or Future tense, the verb in the dependent sentence must be expressed by “may” (Present tense).

(b) If the verb in the principal sentence is in the Past tense, the verb in the dependent sentence must (in accordance with Rule I.) be expressed by “might” (Past tense).

	<i>Principal Sentence.</i>	<i>Dependent Sentence.</i>
Present	{ <i>Indef.</i> He comes,	} <i>Present tense.</i> that he <i>may</i> see me.
	{ <i>Contin.</i> He is coming,	
	{ <i>Perfect</i> He has come,	
	{ <i>Perf. Cont.</i> He has been coming,	
Future	{ <i>Indef.</i> He will come,	} that he <i>may</i> see me.
	{ <i>Contin.</i> He will be coming,	
	{ <i>Perfect</i> He will have come,	
	{ <i>Perf. Cont.</i> He will have been coming,	

		Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
Past	{ Indef.	He came,	{ Past tense. that he might see me.
	{ Contin.	He was coming,	
	{ Perfect	He had come,	
	{ Perf. Cont.	He had been coming,	

Note.—The word “lest” = “that not.” The *only* auxiliary verb that can be used after “lest” is *should*, whatever may be the tense of the verb in the principal sentence :—

	Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
Present . . .	He goes,	{ lest he <i>should</i> see me. or that he <i>may</i> not see me.
Future . . .	He will go,	{ lest he <i>should</i> see me. or that he <i>may</i> not see me.
Past . . .	He went,	{ lest he <i>should</i> see me. or that he <i>might</i> not see me.

425. Conjunctions of Comparison.—When the dependent sentence is introduced by some Conjunction of Comparison, Rule I. has no existence whatever. *Any tense can be followed by any tense.*

Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
He <i>likes</i> you better,	than he <i>liked</i> me.
He <i>liked</i> you better,	than he <i>likes</i> me.
He <i>will like</i> you better,	than he <i>has liked</i> me.
He <i>has liked</i> you better,	than he <i>liked</i> me.
He <i>liked</i> you better,	than he <i>is liking</i> me.
He <i>will like</i> you better,	than he <i>was liking</i> me, etc.

Note 1.—If the comparison is expressed by “as well as” instead of “than,” the same rule holds good. Any tense may be followed by any tense, according to the sense intended by the speaker.

He *likes* you as well as he *liked* me.
He *will like* you as well as he *has liked* me, etc.

Note 2.—If no verb is expressed after “than” or after “as well as,” the tense of the verb *understood* in the dependent sentence is the same as that of the verb *expressed* in the principal sentence.

He *liked* you better than (he *liked*) me.
He *will like* you as well as (he *will like*) me:

In the following examples say whether the verb in the dependent sentence is right or not; and if it is not right, correct it:—

I was informed that he *had been reading* a book. He did not say when he *will come*. No one knew whether he *intended* to come or not. He concealed from me what his plans *are*. I fear that you *were* displeased with me yesterday. I shall soon find out why you *were* so displeased. His face was so changed that I *do* not know him again. The teacher gave me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. The

teacher has given me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. You will be pleased to hear that I *have won* a prize. He asked me why I *wish* to go away so soon. No one understood how he *can* do so much work. He had come that he *might* help me to finish the task. You did not tell me when you *intend* to return home. I was sorry to find that I *have displeased* you. I hope that you *will pardon* me soon. I did not know why you *give* me this order. We shall soon know what progress he *has made*. We heard to-day what progress he *has made*. You never told us that honesty *was* the best policy. They told me that my brother *was* fond of his books. He gave me good advice lest I *may* fall into evil ways. He taught me that good deeds *were* never lost. He lends me his book, that I *might* be saved the expense of buying one.

§ 2.—DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION.

426. When the verb in one sentence reports what is said by some speaker in another sentence, the verb in the first sentence is called the *reporting verb*, and what is said in the second sentence is called the *reported speech*; as—

Reporting Verb.
My father said,

Reported Speech.
“It is time to go away.”

427. Now, there are two different ways in which the reported speech may be expressed:—

It may either (a) repeat the *actual words* used by the speaker, or (b) it may give their *substance*.

428. When the reported speech repeats the *actual words*, this is called **Direct Narration**, as in the above example.

Reporting Verb.
My father said,

Reported Speech.
“It is time to go away.”

Note 1.—This is the mode generally used in the Vernaculars of India. But in English the sentences are *not* joined by “*that*.”

Note 2.—In all cases of Direct Narration the reported speech must be marked off by commas, as in the above example.

429. When the reported speech gives the *substance* of the words used by the speaker, and not the actual words, this is called **Indirect Narration**; as—

My father said *that* it was time to go away.

Note.—In this construction the sentences are joined by “*that*.”

430. The *tense* of the *reporting verb* is never changed. But the tense of the reported speech is liable to certain changes in passing from the Direct Narration to the Indirect; and these depend on the tense of the reporting verb.

431. There are two main rules regarding the change of tense in the reported speech ; and these are similar to the rules given in § 422 about the Sequence of Tenses :—

RULE I.—*If the reporting verb is a Past tense, the tense of the verb in the reported speech must be changed to one or other of the four forms of the Past tense.*

RULE II.—*If the reporting verb is a Present or Future tense, the tense of the verb in the reported speech is not changed at all.*

Rule II.

432. Rule II. is so simple, that we can dispose of it at once. By this rule the reporting verb is assumed to be in some Present or Future tense ; and whenever this occurs, the tense of the verb in the reported speech is *not changed at all* in passing from the Direct to the Indirect Narration.

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i> (<i>Present Tense.</i>)	<i>Reported Speech.</i> (<i>Any Tense.</i>)
{ <i>Direct.</i>	He has told you,	"I am coming."
{ <i>Indirect.</i>	He has told you	that he <i>is</i> coming.
{ <i>Direct.</i>	He says to his friend,	"I have been reading."
{ <i>Indirect.</i>	He says to his friend	that he <i>has been</i> reading.
	(<i>Future Tense.</i>)	(<i>Any Tense.</i>)
{ <i>Direct.</i>	He will say,	"Thou <i>hast</i> spoken falsely."
{ <i>Indirect.</i>	He will tell thee	that thou <i>hast</i> spoken falsely.
{ <i>Direct.</i>	He will say,	"The boy <i>was</i> lazy."
{ <i>Indirect.</i>	He will tell them	that the boy <i>was</i> lazy.

433. Sometimes there is an uncertainty as to whether the pronoun "*he*" in the reported speech refers to the person speaking or to the person spoken to :—

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>
<i>Direct.</i>	{ Gobind says to Cleon,	"I am wrong."
	{ Gobind says to Cleon,	"You are wrong."
<i>Indirect.</i>	Gobind says to Cleon	that <i>he</i> (who ?) is wrong.

How is this uncertainty about the "*he*" to be removed ? This can only be done by inserting the name of the person intended after "*he*," as in the examples given below :—

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>
{ <i>Direct.</i>	Gobind says to Cleon,	"I am wrong."
{ <i>Indirect.</i>	Gobind says to Cleon	that he (Gobind) is wrong.
{ <i>Direct.</i>	Gobind says to Cleon,	"You are wrong."
{ <i>Indirect.</i>	Gobind says to Cleon	that he (Cleon) is wrong.

Convert the following from the Direct to the Indirect Narration :—

The judge will say to you, "You are innocent of that crime."
 All men declare, "He has never been defeated."
 He has told them, "I did not commit this fault."
 He is still declaring, "You are the man who did it."
 He has been saying all day, "I am tired of work."
 I shall tell him plainly, "You cannot come here again."
 I shall always affirm, "He, and not I, is the guilty man."
 He says every day, "This climate will not suit my health, I must go away as soon as I can."
 The judge informs the court, "The man is guilty and will be hanged in four days' time."
 The man has confessed, "I am the guilty man, and deserve the punishment."

Rule I.

434. For the working out of Rule I. in detail, the following special rules must be observed :—

(a) The Present tense (in the reported speech) must be changed to its *corresponding* Past form.

(b) The Past Indefinite (in the reported speech) must be changed to the Past Perfect.

(c) The Past Continuous (in the reported speech) must be changed to the Past Perfect Continuous.

435. *Special Rule (a).*—Change the Present tense (in the reported speech) into its *corresponding* Past form.

Thus *shall* is changed into *should*; *will* is changed into *would*; *may* is changed into *might*; *can* is changed into *could*; *come* is changed into *came*; *is coming* is changed into *was coming*; *has come* is changed into *had come*; *has been coming* is changed into *had been coming*.

	Reporting Verb.	Reported Speech.	
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>shall</i> come"	. Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>should</i> come	. Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>will</i> come"	. Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>would</i> come	. Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>may</i> come"	. Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>might</i> come	. Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>can</i> come"	. Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>could</i> come	. Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>comes</i> "	. Pres. Indef.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>came</i>	. Past Indef.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>is coming</i> "	. Pres. Contin.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>was coming</i>	. Past Contin.

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>	
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>has come</i> "	. Pres. Perfect.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>had come</i>	. Past Perfect.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>has been coming</i> "	Pres. Per. Con.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>had been coming</i>	Past Per. Con.

Examples.

Direct.—And Jacob said : "It is enough ; my son Joseph is yet alive ; I *will* go and see him before I *die*."—*Old Testament.*

Indirect.—And Jacob said that it *was* enough ; that his son Joseph *was* yet alive, and that he *would* go and see him before he *died*.

Direct.—And David's anger was greatly kindled, and he said, "The man who *hath done* this thing *deserveth* to die, and he *shall* restore the lamb fourfold."—*Old Testament.*

Indirect.—And David said that the man who *had* done this thing *deserved* to die, and that he *should* restore the lamb fourfold.

436. *Special Rule (b).*—Change the Past Indefinite (in the reported speech) into the Past Perfect :—

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>	
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>came</i> at six"	. Past Indef.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>had come</i> at six	Past Perfect.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The rain <i>fell</i> yesterday"	. Past Indef.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the rain <i>had fallen</i> yesterday	Past Perfect.

437. *Special Rule (c).*—Change the Past Continuous (in the reported speech) into the Past Perfect Continuous :—

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>	
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>was coming</i> "	. Past Contin.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>had been coming</i>	Past Perf. Con.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The rain <i>was falling</i> yesterday"	. Past Contin.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the rain <i>had been falling</i> yesterday	Past Perf. Con.

(1). *Convert the following sentences from Direct to Indirect :—*

We said to him, "The weather is stormy, and the way is long."

He said to us, "The carriage has come, and we shall start soon."

The teacher told us, "The prize will be presented to-morrow."

He said to me, "The rain has been falling since daybreak, and you cannot go."

We said to him, "Your fault will be pardoned, if you confess it."

He said to me, "I am glad to tell you that you are pardoned."

He said, "The man has started, but he has not yet come."

We heard him say, "I will agree to what you propose, if you sign this."

He said to me, "You are mistaken ; you will not go to-day."

Hasain said to me, "I shall leave this place, as soon as I can."

Hasain said to me, "You will be tired before you arrive."

Hasain said, "Our friend arrived yesterday, but will go to-day."
 My son exclaimed, "Some one has taken the book I was reading."
 He made a promise, "I will come, if I can."
 He said, "I have been very ill, but am now better."
 Pilate replied to the Jews, "What I have written, I have written."
 He said to me, "You are guilty, and I am innocent."
 They said, "The boy is hiding in the place where we left him."
 They said, "The boy will soon be found; and we will bring him."

(2) Convert the following sentences from Indirect to Direct:—

He made them understand that he would soon return.
 He told them that he had been robbed of the book which he had bought.
 He said that he was very sorry for the fault he had committed.
 They all said to him that he deserved to be pardoned.
 They affirmed that he was the best worker they had seen.
 He admitted that he had not worked so hard as Ram had done.
 He heard them say that he did not deserve the prize.
 He promised them that he would do it as soon as he could.
 They said that he deserved their thanks for all he had done.
 All who heard this said that he was speaking the truth.
 He said that he had been three years in jail, and yet was innocent.
 They told him they would never believe what he said.
 He replied that he would prove what he had said to be true.
 My brother told me that he had been reading all day.
 My father told me that I was wrong and would be fined.
 I replied that if my fault was proved I would pay the fine.
 I admitted that I had acted foolishly in what I did.

438. There is one exception to Rule I. similar to that described in § 423 for the Sequence of Tenses.

If the reported speech relates to some *universal* or *habitual* fact, then the Present Indefinite in the reported speech is *not* changed into the corresponding Past, but remains exactly as it was:—

Past tense.

Present tense.

{ Direct.	He said,	"We cannot be quite happy in this life."
{ Indirect.	He said	that we cannot be quite happy in this life.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The earth moves round the sun."
{ Indirect.	He said	that the earth moves round the sun.
{ Direct.	He said,	"God rules and governs all things."
{ Indirect.	He said	that God rules and governs all things.
{ Direct.	He reminded me,	"When the cat is away, the mice play."
{ Indirect.	He reminded me	that when the cat is away, the mice play.

439. In the reported speech, when the *Present* tense is changed into the *Past* by Rule I., an adjective, verb, or

adverb expressing *nearness* is similarly changed into one expressing *distance*.

Thus as a general rule we change :—

<i>Now</i>	into <i>then</i> .	<i>To-day</i>	into <i>that day</i> .
<i>This</i> or <i>these</i>	„ <i>that</i> or <i>those</i> .	<i>To-morrow</i>	„ <i>next day</i> .
<i>Hither</i>	„ <i>thither</i> .	<i>Yesterday</i>	„ <i>the previous day</i> .
<i>Here</i>	„ <i>there</i> .	<i>Last night</i>	„ <i>the previous night</i> .
<i>Hence</i>	„ <i>thence</i> .	<i>Ago</i>	„ <i>before</i> .
<i>Thus</i>	„ <i>so</i> .	<i>Now</i>	„ <i>then</i> .
<i>Come</i>	„ <i>go</i> .		

	Reporting Verb.	Reported Speech.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said,	“I will leave you now.”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He said	that he would leave them then.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said,	“I will come here.”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He said	that he would go there.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said,	“I have seen this man.”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He said	that he had seen that man.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said,	“I saw this man long ago.”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He said	that he had seen that man long before.

But if “*this*,” “*here*,” “*now*,” etc., refers to some object, place, or time that is present to the speaker during the delivery of the speech, then no change of adjective or adverb is made in the reported speech.

	Reporting Verb.	Reported Speech.
{	<i>Direct.</i> Gobind said,	“This is my coat.”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> Gobind said	that <i>this</i> (the coat in his hand) was his coat.
{	<i>Direct.</i> Gobind said,	“I will do it now or never.”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> Gobind said	that he would do it now or never.

440. Interrogative Sentences.—When the reported speech is an Interrogative sentence (§ 2), the reporting verb “say” or “tell” is changed into “ask” or “inquire.”

	Reporting Verb.	Reported Question.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said to me,	“What is the shortest way back?”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He inquired of me	what was the shortest way back.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said to me,	“Where are you going?”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He asked me	where I was going.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said to him,	“Why do you stop here?”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He asked him	why he stopped there.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said to us,	“Are you going away to-day?”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He inquired of us	whether we were going that day.
{	<i>Direct.</i> He said to me,	“Why did you strike me?”
{	<i>Indirect.</i> He demanded of me	why I had struck him.

441. Imperative Sentences.—When the reported speech is an Imperative sentence (§ 2), the reporting verb “say” or

"tell" must be changed to some verb signifying a *command*, or a *precept*, or an *entreaty*, and the student must select the verb best suited to the sense or context.

In its passage from the Direct Narration to the Indirect, the Imperative mood must be replaced by the *Infinitive*.

<i>Reporting Verb.</i>		<i>Reported Imperative.</i>	
{ Direct.	He said to his servants,	"Go away at once."	} <i>Command.</i>
{ Indirect.	He ordered his servants	to go away at once.	
{ Direct.	He said to his friend,	"Work steadily."	} <i>Precept.</i>
{ Indirect.	He advised his friend	to work steadily.	
{ Direct.	He said to the student,	"Do not sit there."	} <i>Prohibition.</i>
{ Indirect.	He forbade the student	to sit there.	
{ Direct.	He said to his master,	"Pardon me, sir."	} <i>Entreaty.</i>
{ Indirect.	He begged his master	to pardon him.	
{ Direct.	He said to his friend,	"Please lend me your book."	} <i>Request.</i>
{ Indirect.	He asked his friend	to be kind enough to lend him his book.	

Whenever a subordinate clause is attached to an Imperative sentence, the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause is regulated by the tense of the reporting verb; (see Rule I. in § 431).

<i>Reporting Verb.</i>		<i>Reported Speech.</i>
{ Direct.	He said to his servant,	"Do as I tell you."
{ Indirect.	He ordered his servant	to do as he told him.
{ Direct.	He said to his friend,	"Wait here till I return."
{ Indirect.	He begged his friend	to wait there till he returned.

442. Exclamatory Sentences.—When the reported speech consists of an Exclamatory or Optative sentence (§ 2), the reporting verb "say" or "tell" must be changed to some such verb as "exclaim," "cry out," "pray," etc., and the student must select the verb best suited to the sense or context.

<i>Reporting Verb.</i>		<i>Reported Exclamation.</i>
{ Direct.	He said,	"Hurrah! my friend is come."
{ Indirect.	He exclaimed with delight,	that his friend had come.
{ Direct.	He said to them all,	"Good-bye, my friends!"
{ Indirect.	He bade good-bye	to all his friends.
{ Direct.	He said,	"May God pardon this sinner!"
{ Indirect.	He prayed that God	would pardon that sinner.
{ Direct.	He said,	"Alas! how foolish I have been!"
{ Indirect.	He confessed with regret	that he had been very foolish.

I. *In the following examples an assertion, a question, and an imperative are mixed up in the same speech:—*

1. Direct.—And he said, “I *will* arise and go to my father, and will say unto him: Father, I *have sinned* against heaven and before thee, and *am* no more worthy to be called thy son: *make* me as one of thy hired servants.”—*New Testament*.

Indirect.—And he said that he *would arise* and go to his father, and *would confess* that he *had sinned* against heaven and against him, and *was* no more worthy to be called his son; and that he *would entreat* his father to *make* him one of his hired servants.

2. Direct.—“What *is this* strange outcry?” said Socrates; “I *sent* the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in *this* way; for I *have heard* that a man should die in peace. *Be* quiet then and *have* patience.”

Indirect.—Socrates *inquired* of them what *that* strange outcry *was*. He *reminded* them that he *had sent* the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in *that* way; for he *had heard* that a man should die in peace. He *begged* them therefore to *be* quiet and *have* patience.

3. Direct.—The teacher became angry with the student and *said*, “Why *have* you again *disturbed* the class in *this* way? I *have told* you before, that when I *am speaking*, you should be silent. *Leave* the room, and *do not return* again to-day.”

Indirect.—The teacher became angry with the student and *inquired* of him why he *had again disturbed* the class in *that* way. He *reminded* him that he *had told* him before that he (the student) should be silent when he (the master) *was speaking*. He *ordered* him therefore to *leave* the room, and *forbade* him to *return* again *that* day.

II. *Change the following from Direct to Indirect:—*

1. And Reuben said unto them, “Shed no blood; cast Joseph into this pit that is in the wilderness, but lay no hand upon him.”—*Old Testament*.

2. And Judah said unto his brethren, “What profit is it, if we slay our brother and conceal his blood? Come, let us sell him to the Ishmaelites, and let not our hand be upon him; for he is our brother and our flesh.”—*Old Testament*.

3. Joseph said to James, “I can tell you what strikes me as the most useful machine in the world.” James replied, “Can you, Joseph? I should like to hear of it. What is it used for?”

4. “What do you mean?” asked the man; “how can a rope be used for binding flour?” “A rope may be used for anything,” replied the man, “when I do not wish to lend it.”

5. Once the rich man said to his poorer brother, “Why do you not enter the service of the king, so that you may relieve yourself from the baseness of labour?”

6. Finding no remedy, he said to himself, “It is better to die than to live in such misery as I am compelled to suffer from a master who treats me and always has treated me so unkindly.”

7. All her maidens watching said, “She must weep, or she will die.”—*Tennyson*.

8. And they said one to another, "We are verily guilty concerning our brother, in that we saw the distress of his soul, when he besought us, and we would not hear: therefore is this distress come upon us."—*Old Testament*.

9. The violent man said, "What violence have I done? What anger have I been guilty of?" Then the others laughed and said to him, "Why should we speak? You have given us ocular proof of your violent temper."

10. And Nathan said unto David, "Thou art the man."

11. The robber said to Alexander, "I am thy captive: I must hear what thou art pleased to say, and endure what thou art pleased to inflict. But my soul is unconquered; and if I reply at all to thy reproaches, I will reply to thee like a free man."

12. "You are old, Father William," the young man cried,

"The locks that are left you are grey;

You are hale, Father William, a hale old man;

Now tell me the reason, I pray."

13. "I am sorry indeed," replied the king, "that my vessel is already chosen; and I cannot therefore sail with the son of the man who served my father."—*Dickens*.

14. He cried to them in agony, "Row back at any risk! I cannot bear to leave her behind to be drowned."—*Dickens*.

15. He made a promise to the king's surgeon, saying: "Bleed the king to death with this lancet, and I will give you a thousand pieces of gold; and when I ascend the throne, you shall be my chief minister."

III. *Change the following from Indirect to Direct:—*

1. Damon, before his execution, requested but one favour from Dionysius, which was that he might be permitted to visit his wife and children, who were at that time a considerable distance from him, promising faithfully to return on the day appointed.

2. This Dionysius refused to grant, unless some person could be found who would consent to suffer death in his stead, if he did not perform his promise.

3. In a short speech Pythias told the surrounding multitude that his dear friend, Damon, would soon arrive; but he hoped not before his own death had saved a life so dear as Damon's was to his family, his friends, and his country.

4. He sent his compliments to Francis, Clavering, and Monson, and charged them to protect Raja Gurn Das, who was about to become the head of the Brahmans of Bengal.

5. The governor of the town then called out with a loud voice, and ordered Androcles to explain to them how a savage and hungry lion could thus in a moment have forgotten its innate disposition, and be converted all of a sudden into a harmless animal.

6. Androcles then explained to them that that very lion, which was standing before them, had been his friend and partner in the woods, and had for that reason spared his life, as they now saw.

7. Socrates then suggested to Glaucón that the entire abolition of the guards which he (Glaucón) recommended could not remedy the evils which he desired to remove, and he inquired of Glaucón whether

he knew by personal examination that the guards did their work as badly as he imagined.

8. When he reached home, his father asked him where his ship was and what had become of his merchandise. The son in reply told him what had happened,—how he had given up his vessel with its cargo, and had taken in exchange the slaves and set them free, and how he had consented to take this girl back with him and make her his wife.

9. When they asked Thales what thing in the world was more universal than anything else, he replied that Hope was the most universal thing, because Hope remained with those who had nothing else left.

10. When Solon and Periander were sitting together over their cups, Periander, finding that Solon was more silent than usual, asked him whether he was silent for want of words or because he was a fool. Solon told him in reply that no fool could be silent over his cups.

CHAPTER XV.—THE ANALYSIS OF WORDS:

SUFFIXES AND PREFIXES.

443. A word that cannot be reduced to a simpler form is called a *simple* or primary word ; as, *join, good, drink, man, hope*. Such words are called also *Roots*.

444. When two words are joined together, so as to make one, the word so formed is called a *compound* word ; as, *ink-pot, door-step, horse-shoe, drinking-water*.

445. When a particle is added to the beginning or to the end of a root, or to both, the word so formed is called a *Derivative* word ; as, *un-man-ly*.

N.B.—Derivative words can also be formed by means of internal changes ; as *tale, tell ; sale, sell*.

446. Particles added to the *end* of a root are called *Suffixes* ; as, “good,” “good-ness.”

447. Particles added to the *beginning* of a root are called *Prefixes* ; as, “deed,” “mis-deed.”

448. The three sources from which in the English language most of the Suffixes and Prefixes have come are :—

I. Teutonic.

II. Romanic (Latin or French).

III. Greek.

§ 1.—TEUTONIC SUFFIXES.

Nouns.

449. An Agent or Doer:—

-er, -ar, -or : bak-*er*, do-*er*, mill-*er*, li-*ar*, tail-*or*, sail-*or*, cloth-*i-er*, court-*i-er*, law-*y-er*, sawy-*er*.

-ster (fem.) : spin-*ster*. It is not Feminine, but merely marks the agent in song-*ster*, malt-*ster*, trick-*ster*, young-*ster*, huck-*ster*, etc.

-ard, art : cow-*ard*, drunk-*ard*, slugg-*ard*, dot-*ard*, bragg-*art*. (This suffix implies excess. Teutonic, but borrowed through French.)

450. Abstract Nouns, marking *state*, *action*, *condition*.

-dom : wis-*dom*, king-*dom*, free-*dom*, martyr-*dom*, serf-*dom*.

-hood, -head : god-*head*; man-*hood*, child-*hood*, neighbour-*hood*, mother-*hood*, widow-*hood*.

-ric : bishop-*ric*. (This denotes jurisdiction.)

-ledge, -lock : know-*ledge*, wed-*lock*.

-ing : learn-*ing*, writ-*ing*, walk-*ing*. (Gerundial Suffix.)

-ness : good-*ness*, holi-*ness*, wit-*ness* (from *wis* or *wit*).

-red : hat-*red*, kind-*red*.

-ship, -scape : friend-*ship*, lord-*ship*, wor-*ship*; land-*scape*.

-th : heal-*th*, steal-*th*, bread-*th*, dep-*th*, wid-*th*, tru-*th*, leng-*th*.

-t, or -d : heigh-*t*, sigh-*t*; dee-*d* (from *do*), cu-*d* (from *cheer*).

451. Diminutives:—

-el, -le : nav-*el* (nave), satch-*el* (sack); freck-*le* (freak), spark-*le*.

-en : chick-*en* (from *cock*), kitt-*en* (from *cat*), maid-*en*.

-ing : farth-*ing*, tith-*ing*, shill-*ing*, whit-*ing*, wild-*ing*.

-ling : duck-*ling*, gos-*ling*, dar-*ling*, strip-*ling*, suck-*ling*, seed-*ling*, change-*ling*, hire-*ling*, strip-*ling*. (Double Suffix, from -*le* and -*ing*.)

-kin : lamb-*kin*, fir-*kin*, Peter-*kin* or Per-*kin*, nap-*kin*.

-ock : hill-*ock*, bull-*ock*, padd-*ock* (from *park*), humm-*ock* (from hump).

-ie, -y : bird-*ie*, bab-*y*, lass-*ie*, dadd-*y*. (Endearment.)

452. *Adjectives.*

-ed (*like*, *having*) : wretch-*ed*, letter-*ed*, land-*ed*, gift-*ed*, ragg-*ed*.

-en (*made of*) : wood-*en*, braz-*en*, earth-*en*, silk-*en*, wax-*en*.

-ful (*full of*) : fear-*ful*, play-*ful*, hope-*ful*, wil-*ful*, truth-*ful*.

-ish (*somewhat like*) : girl-*ish*, whit-*ish*, self-*ish*, brut-*ish*, snobb-*ish*, wolf-*ish*, pal-*ish*, snapp-*ish*. (This suffix often implies contempt.)

-ly (*like*) : god-*ly*, love-*ly*, king-*ly*, sick-*ly*, kind-*ly*, friend-*ly*.

-like : god-*like*, war-*like*, lady-*like*, business-*like*.

-less (*without*) : shame-*less*, house-*less*, hope-*less*, cease-*less*, sleep-*less*, cause-*less*, resist-*less*, worth-*less*.

-y (*pertaining to*, *abounding in*) : hill-*y*, storm-*y*, bush-*y*, rock-*y*, wooll-*y*, smok-*y*, wood-*y*, trust-*y*, feather-*y*.

-some (*full of*, *inclined to*) : game-*some*, win-*some*, burden-*some*, trouble-*some*, hand-*some*, frolic-*some*, quarrel-*some*.

-ward (*turning to*) : fro-*ward*, south-*ward*, down-*ward*, for-*ward*, way-*ward*, heaven-*ward*, home-*ward*.

- teen, -ty (*ten*): nine-*teen*, twen-*ty*, thir-*teen*, etc.
- th (*order*): six-*th*, seven-*th*, etc.
- fold (*repeated*): two-*fold*, mani-*fold*, hundred-*fold*.
- ern (*direction to*): east-*ern*, north-*ern*, etc.

453. *Adverbs.*

- ly (*like*): god-*ly*, miser-*ly*, bad-*ly*, on-*ly*.
 - ling, -long (—*wise, ways*): head-*long*, dark-*ling*, side-*long*.
 - meal (*division*): limb-*meal*, piece-*meal*.
 - ward, -wards (*turning to*): for-*ward*, up-*wards*, down-*wards*.
- N.B.*—The adv. is usually formed by “*wards*”; the adj. by “*ward*.”
- wise (*manner, mode*): other-*wise*, no-*wise*, like-*wise*.
 - way, -ways: al-*ways*, straight-*way*, any-*way*, no-*way*.
 - s, -ce: need-*s*, twi-*ce*, beside-*s*, el-*se*, on-*ce* (sign of Possessive).
 - n: whe-*n*, the-*n*-ce, he-*n*-ee.
 - om: seld-*om*, whil-*om*.
 - re: whe-*re*, the-*re*, he-*re*.
 - ther: whi-*ther*, thi-*ther*, hi-*ther*.

Verbs.

454. Frequentative:—

- k: tal-*k* from tell, har-*k* from hear.
- le, -l: dibb-*le*, spark-*le*, start-*le*, knee-*l*, crack-*le*, cack-*le*, wrigg-*le*.
- er: ling-*er* from long, flitt-*er* from flit, falt-*er* from fail.

455. Causative:—

- en: fatt-*en*, short-*en*, length-*en*, gladd-*en*, black-*en*.

§ 2.—COMPOUND WORDS.

456. *Noun Compounds.*

- (1) Adjective + Noun: blue-*bell*, mid-*day*, sweet-*heart*, noble-*man*, quick-*sand*, mid-*night*.
- (2) Noun or Pronoun + Noun: noon-*tide*, plough-*man*, sports-*man*, rail-*road*, he-*goat*, pea-*hen*, pen-*knife*, moon-*light*.
- (3) Verb + Noun: tell-*tale*, dare-*devil*, pick-*pocket*, break-*fast*, turn-*coat*, stop-*gap*, skin-*flint*, stand-*point*.
- (4) Adverb + Verb: out-*turn*, on-*set*, in-*come*, off-*spring*, out-*let*, off-*set*, out-*fit*, out-*come*.
- (5) Verb + Adverb: keep-*sake*, break-*down*, stand-*still*, draw-*back*, lock-*up*, set-*off*, break-*up*.
- (6) Adverb + Noun: by-*path*, by-*way*, after-*life*, out-*office*, up-*land*, over-*coat*.

457. *Adjective Compounds.*

- (1) Noun + Adjective: sky-*blue*, blood-*red*, foot-*sore*, stone-*blind*, sea-*green*, air-*tight*, penny-*wise*, ice-*cold*.
- (2) Adjective + Adjective: blue-*green*, red-*hot*, ready-*made*, wide-*spread*, high-*born*, new-*laid*, free-*spoken*, full-*grown*.

458. *Verb Compounds.*

- (1) Noun + Verb : *back-bite, way-lay, hen-peck, brow-beat.*
 (2) Adjective + Verb : *white-wash, rough-hew, safe-guard, rough-shoe.*
 (3) Verb + Adverb : *doff (do-off), done (do-on).*

§ 3.—TEUTONIC PREFIXES.

459. A- (*on, in*) : *a-bed, a-shore, a-sleep, a-way, a-stir.*

A- (*off, up, from*) : *a-rise, a-wake, a-maze, a-light, a-rouse, a-new, a-fresh.*

Al- (*all*) : *al-one, l-one, al-most, al-so, al-ready, al-together.*

At- (*to*) : *at-one, at-onement.*

Be- (*by*) : (1) It forms Transitive verbs : *be-ealm, be-dew, be-friend, be-fit.*

(2) It gives an intensive force to verbs : *be-daub, be-smear, be-seech, be-get, be-stir, be-sprinkle.*

(3) It forms a part of some nouns, adverbs, and prepositions : *be-half, be-quest, be-low, be-neath, be-sides, be-ut, be-fore, be-tween (twain).*

For- (*through, thorough*) : *for-swear, for-get, for-bear, for-sake, for-bid.*

Fore- (*before*) : *fore-cast, fore-tell, fore-see, fore-head, fore-lock, fore-thought, fore-runner, fore-stall.*

Forth- : *forth-coming, for-ward, forth-with.*

Gain- (*against*) : *gain-say* (speak or say against).

In- : *in-to, in-sight, in-land, in-let, in-mate.*

Mis- (*wrongly*) : *mis-deed, mis-lead, mis-take, mis-judge.*

On- : *on-set, on-slaught.*

Out- : *out-cast, out-side, out-landish, out-look, out-come, out-let, out-break, out-post, out-house, out-cry.*

It makes Intransitive verbs Transitive : *out-live* (=live beyond), *out-run* (=run ahead of), *out-shine* (surpass in brightness), *out-vote* (=defeat by votes), *out-weigh.*

Over- (*above, beyond*) : *over-eat, over-flow, over-hear, over-coat, over-charge, over-step, over-awe, over-look.*

To- (*to, for*) : *to-day, to-night, to-gether, to-ward, un-to-ward, to-morrow.*

Un- (*not*) : *un-truth, un-real, un-wise, un-told, un-ripe.*

Un- (*back*) : *un-bolt, un-tie, un-loek, un-twine, un-do.*

Under : *under-go, under-stand, under-hand, under-ling, under-neath, under-mine, under-sell.*

Up- : *up-right, up-ward, up-on, up-lands, up-hold, up-shot.*

Well- (*in good state*) : *wel-fare, wel-come.*

With- (*against, back*) : *with-draw, with-hold, with-stand.*

§ 4.—LATIN AND FRENCH SUFFIXES.

Nouns.

460. Agent :—

-ain, -en, -an : *capt-ain, chieft-ain, guardi-an, citiz-en, librari-an.*

-ee, -y : *trust-ee, devot-ee, pay-ee ; deput-y, jur-y.*

-eer, -ier : *engin-eer, auction-eer, volunt-eer ; sold-ier.*

-our, -or, -er: savi-*our*, emper-*or*, govern-*or*, preach-*er*, robb-*er*, act-*or*, doct-*or*, monit-*or*, cens-*or*.

-trix (fem.): execu-*trix*, testa-*trix*, prosecu-*trix*.

-ess (fem.): song-str-*ess*, poet-*ess*, tigr-*ess*, lion-*ess*.

-ive, -iff: capt-*ive*, fugit-*ive*, nat-*ive*; plaint-*iff*, cait-*iff*.

-ant, -ent: merch-*ant*, serv-*ant*; stud-*ent*, presid-*ent*, pati-*ent*.

-ate, -ite, -it: candid-*ate*, advoc-*ate*, Israel-*ite*, Jesu-*it*.

461. Abstract Nouns :—

-age: bond-*age*, cour-*age*, hom-*age*, marri-*age*, pilgrim-*age*.

-ance, -ence: disturb-*ance*, endur-*ance*, repent-*ance*; obedi-*ence*, innoc-*ence*, abs-*ence*, pres-*ence*.

-ancy, -ency: const-*ancy*, brilli-*ancy*, ten-*ancy*; excell-*ency*, reg-*ency*, urg-*ency*, frequ-*ency*.

-ess, -ice, -ise: serv-*ice*, larg-*ess*, rich-*es*, prow-*ess*, merchand-*ise*, just-*ice*.

-tion, -son, -som: benedic-*tion*, beni-*son*, por-*tion*, poi-*son*, redemp-*tion*, ran-*som*, inten-*tion*, attrac-*tion*.

-sion: conver-*sion*, cohe-*sion*, occa-*sion*, compul-*sion*, proces-*sion*, illu-*sion*, man-*sion*.

-lence: pesti-*lence*, vio-*lence*, viru-*lence*, turbu-*lence*, opu-*lence*.

-ment: conceal-*ment*, enchant-*ment*, nourish-*ment*, nutri-*ment*.

-mony: cere-*mony*, acri-*mony*, matri-*mony*, testi-*mony*.

-our, -or: fav-*our*, hon-*our*, err-*or*, langu-*or*, col-*our*.

-eur: grand-*eur*, liqu-*eur*.

-ry, -ery: chival-*ry*, poet-*ry*; slav-*ery*, treach-*ery*, cook-*ery*.

-tude: longi-*tude*, apti-*tude*, alti-*tude*, multi-*tude*.

-ure: creat-*ure*, verd-*ure*, meas-*ure*, vest-*ure*, seiz-*ure*.

-y: harmon-*y*, stud-*y*, victor-*y*, miser-*y*, industr-*y*.

-ity, -ty: fals-*ity*, real-*ity*; cruel-*ty*, frail-*ty*, boun-*ty*.

-al, -als: refus-*al*, propos-*al*, tri-*al*, nupti-*als*, credent-*ials*.

-acy: priv-*acy*, accur-*acy*, intric-*acy*, obstin-*acy*, intim-*acy*.

462. Collectives ; Nouns of Place :—

-ery, -ry: machin-*ery*, caval-*ry*, jewel-*ry*, station-*ery*, shrubb-*ery*, bak-*ery*, cemet-*ery*, spic-*ery*, rock-*ery*.

-ary: libr-*ary*, gran-*ary*, semin-*ary*, sanctu-*ary*, gloss-*ary*.

-ory: fact-*ory*, dormit-*ory*, arm-*ory*, territ-*ory*, observat-*ory*.

-age: assembl-*age*, plum-*age*, foli-*age*, vill-*age*, hermit-*age*.

-ade: colonn-*ade*, balustr-*ade*, fusil-*ade*, ambusc-*ade*, cavalc-*ade*.

463. Diminutives :—

-aster: poet-*aster*, ole-*aster*.

-el, -le: dams-*el*, cast-*le*, mod-*el*, citad-*el*, mors-*el*, parc-*el*.

-icle, -cule: art-*icle*, part-*icle*, animal-*eule*, curr-*icle*, curr-*ieulum*, cut-*icle*, corpus-*cle*, pinna-*cle*.

-ule: glob-*ule*, pill-*ule*, nod-*ule*.

-et, -let: lock-*et*, lanc-*et*, pock-*et*; brace-*let*, stream-*let*, brook-*let*, leaf-*let*, rivu-*let*, ring-*let*, root-*let*.

-ot: fagg-*ot*, chari-*ot*, parr-*ot*, magg-*ot*, ball-*ot*, piv-*ot*.

-ette: etiqu-*ette*, statu-*ette*, cigar-*ette*, waggon-*ette*.

464. *Adjectives.*

- al: *loy-al, leg-al, roy-al, reg-al, equ-al, mort-al, vit-al.*
- an, -ane, -ain: *hum-an; hum-ane, mund-ane; cert-ain.*
- ar: *sol-ar, lun-ar, regul-ar, singul-ar, vulg-ar, vernacul-ar.*
- ant, -ent: *vac-ant, indign-ant, ramp-ant, pati-ent, innoc-ent, curr-ent, confid-ent, tru-ant, vagr-ant.*
- ary, -arious: *contr-ary, ordin-ary, necess-ary, tempor-ary, solit-ary; nef-arious, greg-arious.*
- ate: *fortun-ate, separ-ate, desol-ate, priv-ate, accur-ate.*
- ble, -able: *sta-ble, fee-ble, terri-ble; mov-able, laugh-able, eat-able (edi-ble), service-able, lov-able, drink-able.*
- ese: *Chin-ese, Malt-ese, Burm-ese, Siam-ese, Portugu-ese.*
- ile: *serv-ile, frag-ile, doc-ile, puer-ile, fac-ile, juven-ile.*
- eel, -il, -le: *gent-eel, gent-le, civ-il, fra-il, cru-el, subt-le.*
- ine: *div-ine, infant-ine, leon-ine, can-ine, clandest-ine.*
- ian: *Austral-ian, Ind-ian, Christ-ian.*
- ive: *act-ive, capt-ive, sport-ive, relat-ive, nat-ive, posit-ive.*
- ose, -ous: *verb-ose, joc-ose; monstr-ous, danger-ous, glori-ous, ponder-ous, dexter-ous, courte-ous.*
- ory, -orious: *compuls-ory, transit-ory, curs-ory, dilat-ory; laborious, cens-orious.*
- ble, -ple: *dou-ble, tre-ble; sim-ple, tri-ple.*
- ic, -ique: *publ-ic, rust-ic; un-ique, obl-ique, ant-ique.*
- lent: *pesti-lent, vio-lent, turbu-lent, fraudu-lent.*
- fic: *terri-fic, horri-fic, beati-fic.*
- escent: *conval-escent.*

465. *Verbs.*

- ate: *agit-ate, captiv-ate, moder-ate, stimul-ate, cre-ate.*
- ish: *fin-ish, nour-ish, pun-ish, publ-ish, van-ish.*
- fy: *magni-fy, signi-fy, simpli-fy, modi-fy, terri-fy.*
- ite, -it: *exped-ite, cred-it, mer-it, inhab-it.*
- esce: *efferv-esce, coal-esce.*

§ 5.—GREEK SUFFIXES.

Nouns.

466. Agent:—

- ot: *patri-ot, zeal-ot.*
- ist: *dent-ist, the-ist, egot-ist, alarm-ist, extrem-ist.*
- ast: *enthusi-ast, iconocl-ast.*
- ic: *heret-ic, scept-ic, clcr-ic (=clerk).*

467. Abstract Nouns:—

- ic, -ics: *log-ic, mus-ic; eth-ics, mathemat-ics, polit-ics.*
- ism: *patriot-ism, barbar-ism, magnet-ism, the-ism.*
- asm: *enthusi-asm, pleon-asm, sarc-asm.*
- sis, -sy, -se: *drop-sy, pal-sy; paraly-sis, ba-sis; eclips-e, ellip-se.*
- y: *monarch-y, philosoph-y.*

468. Diminutives :—

-isk, -esque : aster-isk, obel-isk ; statu-esque, burl-esque.

469. Adjectives.

-ic : dramat-ic, cosm-ic, com-ic, trag-ic, polit-ic.

-esque : arab-esque, grot-esque, pictur-esque.

470. Verbs.

-ise, -ize : civil-ise, fertil-ise ; real-ize, theor-ize.

§ 6.—LATIN AND FRENCH PREFIXES.

471. A-, ab-, abs- (*away from*) : ab-hor, ab-use, ab-normal, abs-tract, abs-tain ; a-vert, a-void.

Ad- (*to*) : By assimilation ad- becomes ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-.

ad-vice, ad-join, ad-monish, ad-ore, ad-here, ad-opt.

ac-custom, ac-cept, ac-cede, ac-cent, ac-cuse, ac-quire.

af-ford, af-fix, af-fection, af-filiate, af-fair, af-firm.

ag-grieve, ag-gravate, ag-gregate, ag-gressor.

al-lege, al-lot, al-lure, al-low, al-lay.

an-ounce, an-nex, an-noy, an-nul, an-nihilate.

ap-proach, ap-pear, ap-peal, ap-point, ap-pease, ap-pal.

ar-rive, ar-rears, ar-rest, ar-rogrant, ar-ray, ar-range.

as-sent, as-sert, as-sume, as-certain, as-sail, as-sets.

at-tend, at-tain, at-tract, at-tach, at-tempt, at-tack.

a-spect, a-scribe, a-spire (here the *d* has been lost).

Ante-, anti- (*before*) : ante-chamber, ante-cedent, anti-cipate ; ante-date, ante-cessor (hence an-cestor).

Bene- (*well*) : bene-fit, bene-volent.

Bi- (*two*), bis- (*twice*) : bi-ped, bis-cuit, bi-sect, bi-ennial.

Circum-, circu- (*around*) : circum-ference, circu-it, circum-stance, circum-locution, circum-vent.

Com-, con-, co- (*with*) : by assimilation, col, cor, cog..

Com-pete, com-bat, com-merce, com-pact, com-mand.

Con-tend, con-trive, con-flict, con-cur, con-fluence.

Co-alesce, co-heir, co-habit, co-eternal, co-exist.

Col-lapse, col-lege, col-lect, col-league, col-lision.

Cor-rupt, cor-rect, cor-rod, cor-respond, cor-roborate.

Cog-nate, cog-nizance.

Coun-sel, coun-cil, coun-tenance.

Contra-, contro-, counter- (*against*) : contra-dict, counter-act, contra-st, contro-versy, counter-feit, counter-sign, contra-ry.

De- (*down*) : de-part, de-scend, de-form, de-ter, de-merit.

Dis-, di-, dif- (*asunder, not*) : dis-honour, dis-please, dis-like ; di-verse, di-minish, di-gest ; dif-fer, dif-ficult.

Ex-, e-, ef- (*out of, from*) : ex-alt, c-lect, ex-mayor, ex-pel, ex-amine, e-ducate ; ef-fort, ef-fulgence, ef-fervesce.

Extra- (*beyond*) : extra-ordinary, extra-work, stra-nger.

In-, en-, em- (*in, into, on*) : in-vert, in-vade, im-pose, im-press, il-lusion, en-rich, en-tice, en-dear, em-ploy, em-brace, em-bark, em-barrass.

In- (not): *in-firm, ig-noble, il-legal, im-pious, ir-regular, ir-rational, ig-nominy, il-literate, im-passive.*

Inter- } (within) { *inter-course, inter-preter, inter-rupt, inter-pose,*
Intro- } { *intro-duce, intro-spection.*
Enter- } { *enter-tain, enter-prise, intel-lect.*

Male-, mal- (*ill, badly*): *male-factor; mal-treat, mal-ignant.*

Mis- (from Lat. *minus*, less): *mis-chief, mis-fortune, mis-conduct, mis-named, mis-use, mis-calculate.*

Non- (not): *non-sense, non-existent, non-age, non-compliance.*

Ob- (*in front of, against*): *ob-ject, ob-stinate, oc-cupy, oc-casion, of-fer, of-fend, op-pose, op-press.*

Par-, per-, pil- (*through*): *per-foree, per-spire, per-form, par-don, pel-lucid, pil-grim.*

Post- (*after*): *post-date, post-script, post-pone, post-humous.*

Pre- (*before*): *pre-diet, pre-caution, pre-pare, pre-judice, pre-cursor.*

Pro-, por-, pol-, pur- (*forth*): *pro-ject, pro-pose, pro-noun, pro-mise, por-tend, pol-lute, pur-pose, pur-sue, pur-port.*

Re-, red- (*back, again*): *re-join, re-act, re-new; red-ecm, red-ound, red-undant.*

Retro- (*backward*): *retro-spect, retro-grade, retro-cession.*

Se-, sed- (*apart, away*): *se-clude, se-parate, sed-ition, se-cret, se-cure, se-cede, se-duce.*

Semi-, demi- (*half*): *semi-circle; demi-god, demi-official.*

Sub- (*under*): *sub-ject, suc-cour, suc-cess, suf-fer, suf-fice, sug-gest, sub-ject, sub-committee, sus-tain, sus-pend.*

Super-, sur- (*above, over, beyond*): *super-structure, super-ficial; sur-face, sur-pass.*

Subter- (*beneath*): *subter-fuge.*

Trans- (*across*): *trans-figure, trans-gress, trans-form, trans-it, trans-mit, trans-late, trans-parent.*

Tra-, tres- (*across*): *tra-verse, tres-pass, tra-dition.*

Ultra (*beyond*): *ultra-liberal, ultra-marine.*

Vice-, vis- (*instead of*): *vice-regent, vis-count, vice roy.*

§ 7.—GREEK PREFIXES.

472. Amphi- (*about, on both sides*): *amphi-theatre, amphi-bious.*

An-, am-, a- (*not, without; like English un-*): *an-archy, a-theism, a-pathy, am-brosial, a-trophy.*

Ana- (*up to, again, back*): *ana-tomy, ana-logy, ana-lysis.*

Anti-, ant- (*opposite to, against*): *anti-podes, anti-pathy; ant-agonist.*

Apo- (*away from, from*): *apo-logy, apo-state.*

Arch-, archi- (*chief, head*): *arch-heretic, arch-enemy; archi-tect.*

Auto- (*self*): *auto-graph, auto-biography; auth-entic.*

Cata-, cat- (*down*): *cata-ract, cat-hedral, cata-strophe.*

Dia- (*through*): *dia-meter, dia-logue, dia-dem, dia-gram.*

Di- (*in two*): *di-ssyllable, di-phthong, di-glott.*

Dys- (*ill*): *dys-peptic, dys-entery.*

Ee-, ex- (*out, from*): *ex-odus; ee-centrie, ee-lipse, ee-stasy.*

En- (*in*): *en-thusiasm, en-thesis, en-thesis.*

Epi- (*upon*): *epi*-gram, *ep*-och, *epi*-taph, *ep*-hemeral.
 Hemi- (*half*): *hemi*-sphere.
 Hyper- (*above, over, beyond*): *hyper*-critical, *hyper*-bolical.
 Hypo- (*under*): *hypo*-crite, *hypo*-thesis, *hyp*-hen.
 Meta- (*after, across, change*): *meta*-phor, *meth*-od, *meta*-physics.
 Mono- (*single, alone*): *mono*-graph, *mon*-archy, *mon*-astery, *mon*-k.
 Pan- (*all*): *pan*-theist, *pan*-oply, *pan*-orama.
 Para- (*beside*): *para*-phrase, *para*-ble, *par*-allel, *para*-site.
 Peri- (*around*): *peri*-meter, *peri*-phrasis, *peri*-od.
 Poly- (*many*): *poly*-theism, *poly*-glot, *poly*-gamy, *poly*-gon.
 Pro- (*before*): *pro*-gramme, *pro*-logue, *pro*-phet.
 Syn- (*with*): *syn*-thesis, *syn*-tax, *sym*-pathy, *syl*-lable, *sys*-tem.
 Tele- (*afar*): *tele*-graph, *tele*-phone.
 Tri- (*thrice, or three*): *tri*-pod, *tri*-syllable, *tri*-sect.

CHAPTER XVI.

PUNCTUATION, OR THE RIGHT USE OF STOPS.

473. Punctuation divides one sentence from another sentence, or one part of a sentence from another part, by means of points, stops, or marks.

474. The names of the different points, stops, or marks used for this purpose are:—

Comma, indicated by . . .	Note of exclamation, indicated by . . . !
Semicolon, indicated by . . ;	Brackets, indicated by . . () or []
Colon, indicated by . . :	Dash, indicated by . . —
Full stop or period, indicated by .	Hyphen, indicated by . . -
Note of interrogation, indicated by . . ?	Inverted commas, indicated by . . “ ”
Apostrophe, indicated by . . ’	

The Comma.

475. The comma represents the shortest pause. Its chief uses in a simple sentence are the following:—

(a) Between nouns or pronouns in apposition; as—

Alexander, the son of Philip, king of Macedon.

(b) Between three or more words of the same Part of Speech, when only the last two are connected by “*and*.”

Greece, Italy, and Spain are the peninsulas of Southern Europe.

(*Nouns.*)

We should live soberly, prudently, and industriously at all times.

(*Adverbs.*)

Early to bed and early to rise

Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise. (*Adjectives.*)

(c) After the Nominative of address :—

Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.

(d) After an absolute construction :—

The sun having set, we all went home.

(e) When words of the same class or rank go together in pairs, each pair is separated by a comma :—

By night or by day, at home or abroad, asleep or awake, he is a constant source of anxiety to his father.

(f) After an adverbial phrase at the commencement of a sentence. (Here, however, the comma can be put in or not, at the option of the writer.)

In fact, his poetry is no better than prose. At last, he has gained his point.

(g) Before and after a participial phrase, provided that the participle might be expanded into a sentence, and is not used in a merely qualifying sense (see § 244) :—

Cæsar, having defeated the Gauls, led his army into Britain. (Here "having defeated" means "after he had defeated.")

Convinced of the accuracy of his facts, he stuck to his opinion. (Here "convinced" means "because he was convinced.")

But when the participle qualifies the noun so as merely to *restrict* its meaning, as an adjective would do, the comma should not be used :—

A dog lying asleep on a public road is likely to be run over.

A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still.

(h) Before certain co-ordinative conjunctions :—

He is not a madman, *but* a knave.

He is not only accused, *but also* convicted.

He hoped, *then*, that he would be pardoned.

(i) Explanatory phrases are separated by commas :—

The field was oblong, 60 yards in length, 40 in breadth.

(j) Before and after gerundial Infinitives used in an explanatory or parenthetical sense :—

I am, to tell you the truth, thoroughly sick of work.

To sum up, the man was convicted of three charges.

(k) A comma is sometimes used to introduce a sentence quoted in Direct Narration. The sentence so quoted must be commenced with a capital letter :—

What I say unto you I say unto all, Watch.—*New Testament.*

(l) A comma is sometimes inserted to mark the omission and save the repetition of a verb :—

My regiment is bound for India ; yours, for Gibraltar.

476. In a **compound** sentence the co-ordinate clauses, when they are expressed at full length, are generally separated by a comma :—

His vanity is greater than his ignorance, and what he lacks in knowledge is supplied by impudence.

But when the two sentences are not expressed at full length or are very closely allied, the comma is omitted :—

I made haste and caught him.

I took up a stone and threw it at the mad dog.

477. If no conjunction is used to connect co-ordinate clauses, these must be separated by a comma or by a semicolon :—

(a) When they are short, they are separated by a comma :—

Steam propels, elevates, lowers, pumps, drains, pulls, drives, etc.

(b) When they are long, they are separated by a semicolon :—

Between fame and true honour there is much difference ; the former is blind applause ; the latter is an internal and more silent homage.

478. In **complex** sentences the following rules regarding the use of commas should be noted :—

(a) A Noun-clause is not usually separated by a comma from the Principal clause :—

It is generally allowed that the art of teaching is difficult.

No one knows when he will come.

His being pardoned depends upon whether he will confess his fault or not.

But Noun-clauses must be separated from each other by commas, when they are objects or subjects to the same verb :—

No one knows when he will come, or whether he will come at all, or whether he is even alive.

Who he was, or why he came, or what he intends to do, will all be found out in time.

(b) An Adjective-clause is not separated from the Principal clause by a comma, unless it (the Adjective-clause) is rather lengthy :—

The man *we saw* yesterday has come again to-day.
 Fortune selects him for her lord, *who reflects before acting*.

(c) An Adverb-clause is always or almost always separated by a comma from the Principal clause :—

He will succeed, because he works hard.
 I will gladly do this, if I am allowed.
 Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.

The comma is never omitted, unless the Adverb-clause is either very short or very closely connected with the Principal clause :—

He likes you better than me.
 Send me word before you start.

Insert commas, where necessary, in the following sentences :—

The triple alliance consists of Germany Austria and Italy. My son so far from being blamed for his conduct was commended and even rewarded. The roof of the house having caught fire the inmates fled and remained outside the house until the fire was put out. Towns villages and hamlets were all alike attacked with the epidemic of cholera. I shall be happy to make the attempt that you speak of if I am permitted. From morning till noon from noon to evening from evening to midnight this same grief never leaves him. Early this morning when we had just left the house we met the man that we had been looking for. He found as I expected he would that the house he had lately purchased was a bad one. What was the cause of so much grief to him was never known to any of us. I hope my friend that you will come and spend at least a week with us. He has now grown so old that he spends most of his time in sleeping taking his food or sitting in an easy-chair. I remain my dear sir yours faithfully William Matthews. I shall not leave home for business unless you set the example. Example as the proverb says is the sincerest form of precept. To tell you the plain truth I should be glad to retire from business altogether considering that I am now past sixty years of age and have a son to succeed me. The boatman shouted to a man on shore throw out the rope. A snake sleeping in the grass will bite if any one treads upon it. The prisoner having been convicted of the crime of which he was accused must make up his mind to suffer the penalty. The building is a noble structure of red brick and comprises a reading-room a library a room for writing letters and a room for refreshments. It is quite true that this fine building was erected by private subscriptions. In fact of all that was subscribed L. gave the largest amount in cash but M. was not less liberal because he gave the land on which the building was erected. A dog barking at nothing is a nuisance. Men women and

children were all hard at work trying to keep the water from inundating the house. His being selected for the vacant post depends on whether he has done anything to deserve it. Neighbours fellow-countrymen and fellow-citizens it behoves us to use all efforts to avert this calamity. What he lacks in quickness is supplied by industry. Our men to add to their troubles lost their way in the dark. The guide who was sent to meet them was not only a fool but a knave. We hope however they will reach home before midnight.

The Semicolon.

479. The Semicolon is used, when a greater pause is required than is indicated by the comma.

Its chief uses are as follows:—

(a) To separate *longer* clauses from one another. Here a greater pause is necessary to prevent the sentences from being confused together:—

Honesty of purpose in worldly affairs has many advantages over deceit; it is a safer way of dealing with men; it is an easier mode of despatching business; it inspires men with greater confidence; it acquires more and more confidence in itself, while deceit becomes more and more diffident.

(b) To give greater emphasis to different clauses, so that the mind may dwell longer on each of them in succession:—

As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honour him; but as he was ambitious, I slew him. So there is tears for his love; joy for his fortune; honour for his valour; and death for his ambition.—*Shakespeare.*

(c) To divide clauses, which are connected by some Alternative or Illative conjunction. (Here a greater pause is required, because the mind requires a little more time to perceive the alternative or the inference):—

I met him as he was leaving his house; *otherwise* I should not have known where he lived.

I refused to do what he asked me to do; *for* I was convinced that he had been misinformed of the facts.

The Colon.

480. The Colon may be used at the writer's discretion, if he thinks that the pause is not sufficiently marked by a semicolon. On this point no fixed rules can be given.

The main uses of the colon are the following:—

(a) To introduce an additional remark in explanation or in confirmation of a previous one:—

Strive above all things, in whatever station of life you may be, to preserve health: there is no happiness in life without it.

(b) To introduce a quotation. In this case it is usually followed by a dash:—

Then Peter stood forth and said:—"Of a truth I perceive that God is no respecter of persons," etc.

(c) To recapitulate a series of previous clauses. Here, too, the colon must be followed by a dash:—

The storm had passed; the sun was shining on the green leaves of the trees; the streams were dancing around the rocks; the birds hopped about him, as they chirped their cheerful notes:—such were the pleasant scenes and sounds that welcomed the wanderer back to his home.

(d) To introduce a series of clauses. Here, again, the colon is followed by a dash:—

You must now hear what I have to say about the uses of iron:—we sleep on iron; we travel on iron; we float on iron; we plough the fields with iron; we shoot with iron; we chop down trees with iron;—in fact, there is scarcely anything that we can do without the help of this wonderful metal.

(e) To introduce an example of some rule. Here, again, the colon is followed by a dash:—

The Indefinite article has sometimes the force of a Numeral adjective, signifying *one*:—as, "A stitch in time saves nine."

Insert commas, colons, or semicolons, where necessary, in the following sentences:—

1. According to Hindu notions if a sick man sneezes it is a sure sign of recovery but when one is going out on a journey or about to commence some business should any one about him sneeze the sneeze indicates that the object in which he is interested will not be accomplished.

2. In Rome the army was the nation no citizen could take office unless he had served in ten campaigns.

3. The drill was unremitting at all times so long as a man continued to be a soldier when the troops were in winter quarters sheds were erected in which the soldiers fenced with swords buttoned at the points or hurled javelins also buttoned at the points at one another.

4. The Carthaginian army was composed entirely of mercenary troops Africa Spain and Gaul were their recruiting grounds and these countries were an inexhaustible treasury of warriors as long as the money lasted which the recruits received as pay.

5. While I was still wondering at my sudden deliverance a man came suddenly forward and said my good sir there is nothing to be surprised at I was sent here to find you and rescue you from these robbers well I have succeeded in finding you and so I have accomplished what I was sent for as you now see.

6. Whenever you hesitate about beginning to do something which must be eventually done remember the maxim a thing begun is half done.

The Full Stop or Period.

431. The **Full Stop** or **Period** indicates the close of a complete sentence. The sentence following must invariably be commenced with a capital letter.

The full stop is also used after abbreviations; as, A.D. (for Anno Domini); B.L. (for Bachelor of Law); Bart. (for Baronet); the Hon. (for the Honourable).

Inverted Commas.

432. **Inverted Commas** are used for indicating the beginning and end of a quotation, or of the actual words used by a speaker.

The councillors stood up, and with one voice exclaimed:—"Death before dishonour."

"Wine is a mocker," said the wise king.

Campbell was the author of the following stanza:—

"The more we live, more brief appear
Our life's succeeding stages:
A week to childhood seems a year,
A year like passing ages."

Note of Exclamation.

433. A **Note of Exclamation** is used after words or sentences which express emotion.

How are the mighty fallen in the midst of the battle! I
am distressed for thee, my brother Jonathan!

Nonsense! How can you talk such rubbish?

What a conceited fellow you are! Be silent.

"Land ahead!" shouted the delighted crew.

The Apostrophe.

434. The **Apostrophe** (') is inserted to show that some letter or letters have been omitted.

The Hon'ble (for *Honourable*); c'en (for *even*); 'tis (for *it is*); ta'en (for *taken*); don't (for *do not*); shan't (for *shall not*); won't (for *will not*); tho' (for *though*); an ox's head (for *oxes head*); and all other instances of the Possessive case.

Note of Interrogation.

485. A Note of Interrogation is used after sentences which ask questions. The sentence following must be commenced with a capital.

Where was he born ? When did he die ?

Insert the proper stops and capitals, where necessary, in the following sentences :—

1. Whats the matter Thomas ist that old pain of yours again no its not that at all said he but something a good deal better would you believe it my poor old uncle is dead and he has left me five thousand pounds that was very good of him she replied but its come too late why he inquired because she answered you are now old and broken in health what a pity it is that he did not die twenty years ago or give you the money while he was still alive.

2. I have always considered you a very sensible man said the pleader I shall take one of your oxen in return for the one that has been killed and I believe you will consider that to be just it is no more than what is right replied the farmer but what was I saying dear me I have made a blunder it was not my bull that gored your ox but your bull that gored mine so you must give me an ox in return for the one that has been killed oh thats another matter said the pleader I will inquire about the matter and if I find that what you say is correct then we must come to some equitable settlement.

Dashes.

486. The Dash has four main uses :—

(a) To mark a break or abrupt turn in a sentence :—

Here lies the great—false marble where ?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.

(b) To mark words in apposition or in explanation :—

They plucked the seated hills with all their loads—
Rocks, waters, woods—and by the shaggy tops
Uplifting bore them in their hands.

(c) To introduce a quotation, a first clause, or a final clause ; but in this case it must be preceded by a colon. (For examples, see § 480).

(d) To insert a parenthetical phrase or sentence in the middle of a main sentence. Here *two* dashes are required.

At the age of ten—such is the power of genius—he could read Greek with facility.

Brackets.

487. Brackets are used, like a couple of dashes in (*d*), as just explained, for inserting a parenthetical sentence in the middle of a main sentence.

At the age of ten (such is the power of genius) he could read Greek with facility.

The Hyphen.

488. A Hyphen is used for joining the parts of a compound word; as "bathing-place."

Note.—A hyphen, like the dash, is formed by a horizontal line. But the line is shorter.

Insert a dash, hyphen, or brackets, wherever necessary, in the following sentences, and add any other appropriate stops:—

England and Russia the two greatest empires on the face of the earth have no real cause of enmity. I could tell you all about my but perhaps you have heard enough by this time. My dog such is the power of jealousy attacked its rival whenever they met. This is very uphill work. If you read without spectacles and I believe you can be so good as to read out the contents of this letter. When I took my degree it was twelve years ago I had good prospects before me. I will never but I need not finish my sentence for you know already what I was going to say.

X APPENDIX A.

THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

1. To "conjugate" a verb is to show its chief parts.

Note.—The term "conjugation" is sometimes used in a wider sense to denote the formation of *all* the inflections and combinations that are employed to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

2. The chief parts of a verb in English are the Present tense, the Past tense, and the Past Participle; all the other parts, Active and Passive, can be easily formed from these three.

3. There are two main kinds of Conjugation:—

I. The *Strong* or older kind (now much less numerous than it once was), which forms the past tense by changing the *inside vowel* of the present, and does not form the Past tense by adding *-ed* or *-t*; as, *rise, rose*.

II. The *Weak* or new kind (now much more numerous than the Strong), which forms the past tense by adding *ed* or *t* to the present, with or without a change of the inside vowel; as *seek, sought*.

The student will therefore observe that vowel-change in the Past tense is not the *decisive* mark of the Strong conjugation, but the absence of a suffix to form the Past tense.

1. The Strong or Older Conjugation.

4. The Strong verbs are conjugated by internal changes, the nature of which is too various to be reduced to a single rule.

The most general process consists in (1) changing the inside vowel for the Past tense, and (2) adding *en, n, ne* for the Past Participle.

5. Formerly *all* verbs of the Strong Conjugation formed the Past Participle by adding *en, n, ne*; but many of them have now laid aside this suffix.

Hence the Strong verbs, as they now exist, fall into two main groups:—

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| (1) Those which have retained | } the <i>en, n, ne</i> in the
Past Participle. |
| (2) Those which have lost | |

Group I.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Arise	arose	arisen
Bear (produce)	bore	born
Bear (carry)	bore	borne
Beget	begot, begat	begotten, begot
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bind	bound	*bounden, bound
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave (split)	clove, cleft	*cloven, cleft
Crow	crew, crowed	crowed, rarely crown
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	*drunken, drunk
Drive	drove, drave	driven
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	*gotten, get
Give	gave	given
Go, wend	went	gone
Grow	grew	grown
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Know	knew	known
Lie	lay	lain
Ride	rode	ridden
Rise	rose	risen
See	saw	seen
Shake	shook	shaken
Shrink	shrank	*shrunken, shrunk
Sink	sank	*sunken, sunk
Slay	slew	slain
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Smite	smote	smitten, smit
Speak	spoke, spake	spoken
Steal	stole	stolen
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	*stricken, struck
Strive	strove	striven
Swear	swore	sworn
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore	torn
Thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Throw	threw	thrown
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Write	wrote	written

Note.—The seven participles marked (*) are now chiefly used as verbal adjectives only, and not as parts of some tense :—

<i>Verbal Adjective.</i>	<i>Part of some Tense.</i>
Our <i>bounden</i> duty.	He was <i>bound</i> by his promise.
A <i>drunken</i> man.	He had <i>drunk</i> much wine.
A <i>sunken</i> ship.	The ship had <i>sunk</i> under the water.
A <i>stricken</i> deer.	The deer was <i>struck</i> with an arrow.
The <i>shrunk</i> stream.	The stream has <i>shrunk</i> in its bed.
Ill- <i>gotten</i> wealth.	He has <i>got</i> wealth by ill means.
A <i>clown</i> hoof.	The tree was <i>cleft</i> by lightning.

Group II.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Awake	awoke	awoke
Become	became	become
Begin	began	begun
Behold	beheld	beheld, beholden ¹
Cling	elung	elung
Come	eame	eome
Dig	dug	dug
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Fling	flung	flung
Grind	ground	ground
Hang ²	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
Hold	held	held
Ring	rang	rung
Run	ran	run
Shine	shone	shone
Sing	sang	sung
Sit	sat	sat
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Spin	spun	spun
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	stove, staved	stove, staved

¹ "Beholden" means "indebted."

² The *Intransitive* verb is conjugated in the Strong form only. The *Transitive* verb is conjugated both in the Weak and in the Strong form. "Hanged" (Weak form) means "killed by hanging"; as, "The dog was *hanged*." "Hung" (Strong form) is used in a general sense; as, "He *hung* up his coat."

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stank	stunk
String	strung	strung
Swim	swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Wring	wrung	wrung

Group III.—Mixed Verbs.

6. These verbs (like Weak ones) form the Past tense in *d* or *t*, but (like Strong verbs) form the Past Participle by adding *en* or *n*; as, "show, showed, shown."

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Beat	beat	beaten
Do	did (<i>irregular</i>)	done
Grave	graved	*graven, graved
Hew	hewed	hewn
Lade	laded	laden
Melt	melted	*molten, melted
Mow	mowed	mown
Rive	rived	riven
Seethe	seethed	*sodden, seethed
Shave	shaved	shaven
Shear	sheared	*shorn, sheared
Sow	sowed	sown
Swell	swelled	swollen
Show	showed	shown
Sew	sewed	sewn
Rot	rotted	*rotten, rotted
Strew	strewed	strewn or strown
Prove	proved	†proven, proved
Saw	sawed	sawn
Shape	shaped	†shapen, shaped
Writhe	writhed	†writhen, writhed

Note 1.—The participles marked * are now chiefly used as Verbal adjectives, and not as parts of some Tense :—

<i>Verbal Adjective.</i>	<i>Part of some Tense.</i>
A <i>hewn</i> log.	The log has been <i>hewed</i> .
A <i>graven</i> image.	The image was <i>engraved</i> with letters.
A <i>molten</i> image.	The image was <i>melted</i> with heat.
A <i>rotten</i> plank.	The plank was <i>rotted</i> by water.
The <i>sodden</i> flesh.	The flesh was <i>scathed</i> in hot water.
A <i>shorn</i> lamb.	The lamb was <i>sheared</i> to-day.

Note 2.—The participles marked † are now seldom seen except in poetry.

2. *The Weak Conjugation.*

7. All verbs, except those shown in the preceding lists, belong to the Weak or new Conjugation, in which the process of forming the Past tense and Past Participle consists in adding *ed* or *t* to the Present.

8. The mode of adding the suffix "*ed*" is not uniform ; and the two rules given below should be observed :—

(1) If the verb ends in *e*, then *d* only is added, and not *ed* ; as—

Live, lived (not *liveed*).

Clothe, clothed (not *clothced*).

To this rule there is no exception.

(2) The final consonant is doubled before *ed*, provided (a) that it is *single*, (b) that it is preceded by a *single vowel*, (c) that the verb is *monosyllabic* or has the final syllable *accented*.

Fan, fanned (not *fanced*) ; *drop, dropped* (not *droped*).

Compel, compelled ; *control, controlled*.

But in a verb like *lengthen*, where the accent is not on the last syllable, the Past tense is *lengthened* ; in a verb like *boil*, where the vowel is not single, the Past tense is *boiled* ; and in a verb like *fold*, where the last consonant is not single, the Past tense is *folded*.

To this rule there are very few exceptions. One exception occurs in the final *l*. The final *l* is doubled, even when it is not accented ; as, *travel, travelled* (not *traveled*). But the final *l* is not doubled, if it has two vowels going before it ; as, *travail, travailed* (not *travalled*).

9. Some verbs of the Weak Conjugation form the Past tense in "*t*," and if the vowel of the Present is a long one, they shorten it :—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Creep	crept	crept
Sleep	slept	slept
Sweep	swept	swept
Keep	kept	kept
Weep	wept	wept
Burn	burnt	burnt
Deal (dēl)	dēalt	dēalt
Dream (drēm)	drēamt or dreamed	drēamt or dreamed
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Feel	felt	felt
Kneel	knelt	knelt
Smell	smelt	smelt
Spell	spelt	spelt
Leap (lēp)	leapt	leapt

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Mean (mēn)	mēant	mēant
Spill	spilt	spilt
Spoil	spoilt or spoiled	spoilt or spoiled

Exceptional Verbs.—Make, made, made. Have, had, had. Hear, heard, heard. Leave, left, left. Cleave, cleft, cleft. Lose, lost, lost. Die, died, dead. Shoe, shod, shod. Flee, fled, fled. Say, said, said. Lay, laid, laid. Pay, paid, paid.

(10) Some Weak verbs undergo a change of inside vowel. This, however, does not make them Strong verbs. They are Weak without any doubt, because they form the Past tense with the suffix *ed*, *d*, or *t*.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Beseech	besought	besought
Bring	brought	brought
Buy	bought	bought
Catch	caught	caught
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Work	worked	*wrought, worked
Owe	ought, owed	owed
Dare	durst or dared	dared
Can	could	(<i>Wanting</i>)
Shall	should	(<i>Wanting</i>)
Will	would	(<i>Wanting</i>)
May	might	(<i>Wanting</i>)

11. Verbs ending in *d* or *t* in the Present tense have discarded the *ed* in the Past.

(a) Some verbs in this group have the three forms (Present tense, Past tense, and Past Participle) all exactly alike :—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Burst	burst	burst
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Let	let	let
Put	put	put
Rid	rid	rid
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Slit	slit	slit

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Spit	spit or spat	spit
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Bet	bet	bet
Two forms {	quit or quitted	quit or quitted
	wed or wedded	wed or wedded
	knit or knitted	knit or knitted

(b) Other verbs in this group end in *d* in the Present tense, but form the Past tense and Past Participle by changing *d* into *t*. (There are at least nine such verbs in English.)

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Bend	bent	bent
Build	built	built
Gild	gilt, gilded	gilt
Gird	girt, girded	girt
Lend	lent	lent
Rend	rent	rent
Send	sent	sent
Spend	spent	spent
Wend	went, wended	(<i>Wanted</i>)

(c) Other verbs of this group have the three forms all alike except that they shorten the vowel in the Past tense and Past Participle :—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Bleed	bled	bled
Breed	bred	bred
Feed	fed	fed
Speed	sped	sped
Meet	met	met
Lead	led	led
Read	read	read
Light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
Shoot	shot	shot

Note.—The following differences in the use of participles as adjectives or as parts of a tense should be noted, in addition to the two lists already given in pages 208 and 210 respectively :—

<i>Verbal Adjective.</i>	<i>Part of Some Tense.</i>
A <i>lighted</i> candle.	The candle is <i>lit</i> or <i>lighted</i> .
Roast meat.	The meat is <i>roasted</i> .
Wrought iron.	The horse is <i>worked</i> too hard.

APPENDIX B.

AUXILIARY, DEFECTIVE, AND ANOMALOUS VERBS.

(1) Be.

		Singular.			Plural.
		1	2	3	1 2 3
<i>Present</i>	<i>Indicative</i> .	am	art	is	are
	<i>Subjunctive</i> .	be	be	be	be
<i>Past</i>	<i>Indicative</i> .	was	wast	was	were
	<i>Subjunctive</i> .	were	wert	were	were

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To be	be	being	having been

This verb is used in three different ways :—

(a) As an Intransitive verb of *Complete* Predication, in the sense of mere existence :—

God *is* = God exists.

There *are* many men, who, etc. = Many men exist, who, etc.

(b) As an Intransitive verb of *Incomplete* Predication :—

A horse *is* a four-legged animal.

This coat *was* of many colours.

(c) As an Auxiliary verb :—

All the tenses in Passive verbs and all the Continuous tenses in Active ones are formed by the help of the verb *to be*.

(2) Have.

		Singular.			Plural.
		1	2	3	1 2 3
<i>Present</i>	<i>Indicative</i> .	have	hast	has	have
	<i>Subjunctive</i> .	have	have	have	have
<i>Past</i>	<i>Indicative</i> .	had	hadst	had	had
	<i>Subjunctive</i> .	had	hadst	had	had

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To have	have	having	having had

This verb is used in two different senses :—

(a) As a Transitive verb, denoting possession. In this sense it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses :—

We have (=we possess) four cows and twenty sheep.

(b) As an Auxiliary verb :—

All the Perfect tenses, in all the Moods, Active and Passive, are formed by the help of this verb.

(3) Shall.

	Singular.			Plural.
<i>Present</i> . .	1 shall	2 shalt	3 shall	1 2 3 shall
<i>Past</i> . .	should	shouldst	should	should

There are no other tenses, and there is no Infinitive mood to this verb. It is used in four different senses :—

(a) As an Auxiliary verb, in a merely *Future* sense :—

The *first* person of the Future Indicative is formed by *shall*, and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *should*; as, "I shall go," "if he should go" (see § 207, a, and § 226).

(b) As a Principal verb (Trans.), in the sense of *command* :—

In the *second* and *third* persons of the Future; as, "thou *shalt* not steal" (see § 207, b). The Infinitive "steal" is its object.

(c) As a Principal verb (Trans.), in the sense of *duty* :—

"Should," and not "shall," is used in the sense of duty. (Here the force of the verb is not Subjunctive, but Indicative.)

Present.—I *should* do (=it is my duty to do) this.

Past.—I *should* have done this; (it was my duty to do this, but I failed to do it). The Infm. *do* and *have done* are objects of *should*.

In the following sentence "*should*" is used in the sense of inference, rather than in that of duty :—

He *should* have arrived by this time.

That is, "It may be inferred, according to the ordinary course of events, that he has arrived by this time."

(d) As an Auxiliary verb, in the sense of purpose, but only after the conjunction "*lest*," and only in the form of "*should*" (see § 424, *Note*):—

He worked hard *lest* he *should* fail.

(4) Will.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
<i>Present</i> . . .	will	wilt	will	will
<i>Past</i> . . .	{ would willed	wouldst willedst	would willed	would willed

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To will	...	willing	having willed

This verb is used in several different senses :—

(a) As an Auxiliary verb, in a merely *Future* sense :—

The *second* and *third* persons of the Future Indicative are formed by *will*; and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *would* (see § 207, a, and § 230, 3).

(b) As a Principal verb (Transitive) (see § 207, c) :—

I will not steal = I do not intend to steal.

To will is present with me; but what I *will* (=wish or intend to do) I do not, and what I *will not*, that I do.—*New Testament*.

Note.—The phrase "*would-be*" is elliptical, and is used as an adjective :—

A *would-be* murderer (a man who wished or intended to be a murderer, but was prevented).

(c) As a Principal verb (Transitive), in the sense of *habit*. In this sense "*will*" has the force of a Present Indicative, and "*would*" of a Past Indicative. The *Infin.* following is its object.

When frightened, an elephant *will* burst (=is in the habit of bursting) away with a rush.

He *would* come (=was in the habit of coming) every day.

(d) As a Principal verb (Transitive), in the sense of leaving property by a written document or "*will*." In this sense the Past tense is *willed*, and not *would* :—

He *willed* (=decided by his written will or testament) that all his property should go to his daughter.

(5) Do.

	Singular.			Plural.
<i>Present</i> . . .	1 do	2 dost	3 does	1 2 3 do
<i>Past</i> . . .	did	didst	did	did

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To do	do	doing	having done

This verb is used in three different senses :—

(a) As a Principal verb (Transitive) in the sense of “perform.” In this sense it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses :—

I am now *doing* what you *have done* already.

(b) As an Auxiliary verb, declined only in the Present and Past tenses :—

Do and *did* are used as auxiliaries to the Present and Past tenses, Indicative, of other verbs for the sake of *emphasis*, for the sake of using a *negative*, and for the sake of *asking a question* (see examples given in § 204).

On the uses of *do* in the Imperative, see § 222.

(c) As a Pro-verb or Substitute-verb, to avoid the repetition of a previous verb. In this sense it can be used in any mood or tense :—

You need not work so hard as you *did* (=worked) yesterday.

(6) May.

	Singular.			Plural.
<i>Present</i> . . .	1 may	2 mayest	3 may	1 2 3 may
<i>Past</i> . . .	might	mightest	might	might

This verb has two different uses :—

(a) As a Principal verb, Transitive, with Infinitive as object :—

He *might* have gone. (*Possibility or Permission.*)

(b) As an Auxiliary verb, for forming the Subjunctive :—

He works that he *may* live *Purpose.*
May heaven protect thee! *Prayer.*

The six verbs hitherto named,—*be, have, shall, will, do, may*,—are the only ones that can be used as Auxiliaries. All of them, as has been shown, can be also used as Principal verbs in certain contexts, and all but the first are Transitive.

(7) Can.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
<i>Present</i> . . .	Can	canst	can	can
<i>Past.</i> . . .	Could	couldst	could	could

This is a Transitive verb, used in two different senses :—

(a) In the sense of permission :—

You *can* (=are permitted to) go or not, as you like.

(b) In the sense of power or ability :—

He *cannot* (=is unable to) run as fast as you.

He *could* (=is able to) do this, if he tried.

Note.—The verb *can* in some grammars is said to constitute a separate mood, which is called the *Potential*. But this is a mistake. It is never Auxiliary, always Principal, and the Infinitive following is its object.

(8) Ought.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
<i>Present or Past.</i>	Ought	oughtest	ought	ought

This verb is, in its origin, the Past tense of the verb *owe*; as, “you *ought* (=owed) him a thousand pounds.” It is now used only in the sense of *duty*. The verb *ought* is Transitive, and the Infinitive following is its object.

Present.—You *ought to do* this; (and you are expected to do it).

Past.—You *ought to have done* this; (but you did not do it).

(9) Must.

This verb has now no varieties of form.

It is, in its origin, the Past tense of an old verb *motan*, "to be obliged." The Infinitive following is its object.

"Must" now relates, not to Past, but to Present or Future time, and is used in four different senses :—

(a) In the sense of necessity or compulsion :—

What *must* come, *must*.

(b) In the sense of a very strong intention :—

I *must* finish this, before I go.

(c) In the sense of certainty or a very strong inference :—

He *must* be dead by this time.

(d) In the sense of duty or a very strong obligation :—

We *must* pay our debts.

(10) Dare.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
<i>Present</i> . . .	dare	darest	{ dares dare	dare
<i>Past</i> . . .	{ durst dared	durst dared	{ durst dared	{ durst dared

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To dare	dare	daring	having dared

This verb is used in two senses :—

(a) As a verb of Incomplete Predication in the sense of *having courage*. In this sense the Third present Singular is "dare," and not "dares," provided it is followed by a Negative :—

He *dare* not (= has not the courage to) leave the room. (*Negative*.)

He *dares* to leave the room. (*Affirmative*.)

In the Past tense, provided it is followed by a Negative, "durst" is used, and sometimes "dared" :—

He *durst* not (or *dared* not) leave the room.

But if the verb is affirmative, we use "dared" and not "durst." The idiom "I dare say" simply means "perhaps."

(b) As a Transitive verb in the sense of *challenging*. When the verb is used in this sense, it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses :—

He *dares* me (=challenges me) to fight.
He *dared* me (=challenged me) to my face.

(11) Quoth.

This verb is the Past tense of an old verb, which is now obsolete except in the compound form of *be-queath*.

It means “says,” or “said,” and therefore stands equally for Past and Present time. Used only in the First and Third persons and only in the Singular number. It always stands *before* its subject :—

“Let me not live,” *quoth* he.—*Shakspeare*.

(12) Need.

This is a Principal or independent verb, signifying “require,” “want.” As such it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses.

The Third person Singular is *need*, and not *needs*, just as *dare* is used for *dares*, provided it is followed by a Negative :—

He *need* not (=is under no necessity to) do any more work.

In such a phrase as “he must *needs* do this,” *needs* is really a Possessive case, with the apostrophe before the *s* omitted. So *needs* = need’s = of need = of necessity = necessarily. *Needs* has therefore become an Adverb (see § 266).

(13) Worth.

This verb occurs in such a phrase as “woe *worth* the day,” which means “woe be to the day.” The noun “day” is in the Objective case.

Worth is here the Subjunctive mood (in the sense of wish, see § 230, 2) of an old verb signifying “to become.”

(14) Wit.

This verb signifies “to know.” Only a few of its forms have survived ; the rest have become obsolete.

(a) The Infinitive form *to wit*, in the sense of “namely.” This is much used in legal documents at the present day :—

He left me by will all his land, *to wit*, the three farms

(b) The Present Participle has survived in the negative adverbial form of *unwittingly*, which means "unknowingly" or "unintentionally."

You cannot blame him for this, since he did it *unwittingly*.

(c) In the Present Indicative it occurs in the form of *wot*, and in the Past Indicative in the form *wist*; but these are almost obsolete.

Present.—He *wot* neither what he babbles nor what he means.—
Tyndall.

Past.—They *wist* not what had become of him.—*New Testament*.

(15) Beware.

This is a compound word consisting of *be* + *warc*. "Ware" is an old form of the adjective "wary," which means "cautious." The adjective is complement to the verb "be," and is always followed by the preposition "of."

The form "*beware*" is the only one used.

(16) Wont.

This is the Past Participle of an obsolete verb, which signified "to continue." Hence "wont" means "accustomed."

(17) Hight.

The Past Participle of an obsolete verb, which signified "to call."

(18) Impersonal Verbs.

Verbs are said to be **Impersonal**, or to be used impersonally, when they take "it" for their subject, and are followed by some Personal pronoun in the Objective case :—

It shames *me* to hear this = I am ashamed to hear this.

It repents *me* of my folly = I repent of my folly.

It behoves *me* to do this = I ought to do this.

There are three instances in which the *it* is omitted, and the pronoun in the Objective case is placed *before* the verb instead of after it :—

Me thinks = it thinks *me* = I think.

Me seems = it seems to *me*.

Me lists = it seems to *me*, or it pleases *me*.

The following phrase is elliptical :—

So *please* your Majesty.—*Shakspeare*.

This means, "If *it* so please your Majesty"; that is, "if your Majesty so please or so desire."

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THE END

